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ABSTRACT

With the passage of the Schools of Education Assistance Act as part of the reauthorized Higher Education Act, institutions of teacher education have a long awaited federal mandate for their own redesign and redirection. This legislation provides a principle: that schools, colleges, and departments of education represent a valuable resource for the preparation of educational personnel--not only for the public schools, but also for social services in general. The papers presented in this volume offer a framework for future policies regarding the education of educators, and are organized into four topics: policy development, traditional roles and strengths, emerging needs, and collaborative models. The papers specifically discuss: (1) the need for policy development: (2) the implications of the demographics of teacher education on policy making: (3) the research and dissemination capacity of schools of education: (4) preparing educators for nonschool settings: (5) challenges for schools of education in the 1980's: (6) the educational needs of business and industry: (7) urban education: (8) federal involvement in educational personnel development: (9) intercollegiate collaboration: (10) collaboration between schools of education and other agencies: and (11) perspectives on policy development for teacher education. (CJ)

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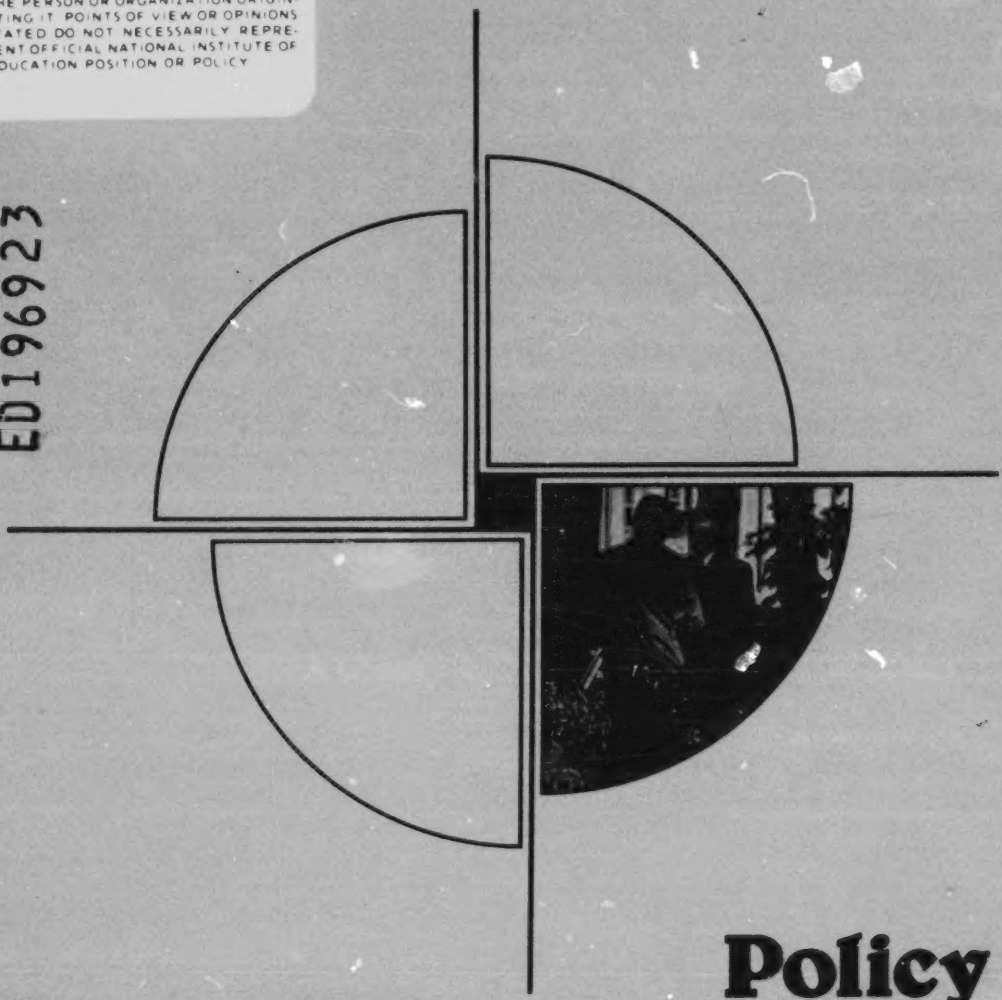

Policy for the Education of Educators: Issues and Implications

SP 017 448

POLICY FOR THE EDUCATION OF EDUCATORS:

ISSUES AND IMPLICATIONS

Georgianna Appignani, Editor

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This material does not necessarily reflect the viewpoints of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE). AACTE is printing this document to stimulate discussion, study, and experimentation among educators.

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INTPODUCTION

With the passage of the Schools of Education Assistance Act as part of the reauthorized Higher Education Act (PL 96-374), institutions of teacher education have a long-awaited Federal mandate for their own redesign and redirection. Starting in fiscal year 1981, schools, colleges, and departments of education (SCDEs) will be eligible for grants to:

- develop model projects for improved preservice or support activities for preparing elementary or secondary school teachers;
- diversify and redirect their teacher training programs to make maximum use of human resources in education and public services;
- retrain their faculty members to prepare teachers for such programs as career education, education of gifted and talented children, education of handicapped individuals, community education, adult education, and earth sciences;
- train and orient their faculty members to prepare personnel for training functions under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (especially Title VIII, which relates to cooperative education and career preparation);
- train educational personnel to specialize in implementation of policies in areas of critical need in education, including urban and environmental concerns (Note: See Appendix for full text of the law).

This legislation is the result of more than two years of effort spearheaded by the Commission on Governmental Relations of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE). With the support of key members of Congress, particularly Harrison Williams (D-NJ), Theodore Weiss (D-NY), and William Ford (D-MI), the legislation was drafted and refined. Through mobilization of SCDE leaders across the

nation, Congressional support increased, and the bill became part of the Education Amendments of 1980. Not only a mandate for redesign, the enacted legislation is testimony to the growing effectiveness of SCDE involvement in Federal policymaking.

Much has been accomplished, but much remains to be done. The legislation provides a principle: That schools, colleges, and departments of education represent a valuable resource for the preparation of educational personnel -- not only for the public schools, but for social services in general. SCDEs have been recognized as a resource worth improving, worth an investment of Federal dollars.

The challenges remain: How can we use this opportunity to attain better professional programs in our colleges and universities? We must plan wisely what our future course will be, while continuing to make our political influence felt in working for clear regulations and full funding of this legislation.

The papers presented here offer a framework for future policies regarding the education of educators. The work of many of these authors was instrumental in gaining Congressional acceptance for the Schools of Education Assistance Act. Their ideas offer guidelines on how SCDEs can benefit from this new opportunity. While the authors may offer different alternatives for using SCDE resources more effectively, they share a belief in the value of SCDE capacity to meet changing societal needs.

The papers are organized into four topics: policy development, traditional roles and strengths, emerging needs, and collaborative models. In a concluding statement, Georgianna Appignani, Dean of the School of Education at Kean College of New Jersey, offers a perspective on the future, urging the education profession to consider the new legislation as an impetus for more creative responses.

In the first paper, Francis Keppel, Professor at Harvard's Graduate School of Education, calls for a conscious plan for educational policy development. Four factors will contribute to this policy formulation, according to Dr. Keppel: 1) the availability of data on the results of schooling, 2) the trend toward unionization of educational and public service personnel, 3) the influence of external social forces, and 4) the emerging international context.

In assessing traditional roles, strengths, and potential of SCDEs, Ralph Cyr, Staff Associate for Information Services and Research at AACTE, presents a data base for further action. Based on three recent studies, the paper provides a comprehensive picture of the existing resource base for the preparation of preservice teachers and assesses the capacities for inservice programs and knowledge production and use. The paper graphically portrays the diversity of SCDEs while stressing their common concerns.

Focusing on the SCDEs with graduate programs, David L. Clark, Professor of Education, Indiana University, and Linda S. Lotto, Research Specialist, National Center for Research in Vocational Education, Ohio State University, examine institutional capacity in research and development (R&D) and knowledge dissemination and utilization (D&U). The authors measure existing resources, project productivity in the near future, and advocate interventions at the national level to maintain and further develop capacity.

Turning to a consideration of emerging needs in the profession, Dean C. Corrigan, Dean, College of Education, Texas A&M University, surveys markets for educational personnel beyond the public school, examines existing programs to prepare such personnel, and recommends changes in institutions and leadership directions to respond to these new challenges.

Timothy Weaver, Associate Professor in the Educational Leadership Program, Boston University, cautions that SCDEs must devise a system for attracting talented students into education during a period of severe market stress. Otherwise, an education "brain drain" will channel potential leaders in research, administration, and teaching into other disciplines. A broadened mission for SCDEs is one essential response.

In an examination of the need for educational personnel in business and industry, Robert E. Taylor, Executive Director of the National Center for Research in Vocational Education at Ohio State University, and Rebecca L. Watts, Program Associate at the Center, urge SCDEs to reorient their programs to supply such educators. Human resource development is becoming an important facet of business and industrial programs in education, and SCDEs should explore cooperative relationships with this sector.

The special challenges to SCDEs in urban areas are examined by Gary Gappert, Director of Urban Development at Research for Better Schools and Director of the Institute for Futures Studies and Research at the

University of Akron. He concludes that effective urban SCDEs must adapt: tapping the strengths of other university departments in joint ventures, offering mid-career development for personnel in schools and community agencies, and developing research agendas in cooperation with school districts.

The next group of papers considers the history of collaborative ventures among different levels of government, among colleges and universities, and between SCDEs and governmental agencies. Emily Feistritzer, Publisher, Feistritzer Publications, and David G. Imig, Executive Director of AACTE, assess the status of educational personnel development at the Federal level in terms of programs, funding, and organization. The authors trace recent Federal initiatives, both in Congress and the administration, which led to the enactment of the Schools of Education Assistance Act and the establishment of a new Office of Education Professions Development within the Department of Education. They note that the involvement of organizations such as AACTE and the teacher unions has been critical in making educational personnel development a Federal priority.

Barbara L. Schneider, Assistant Dean for Research, Northwestern University, studies collaborative efforts between institutions of higher education, measuring factors which affect the kind and quality of joint efforts to influence policy development, generate new knowledge, and share resources. She highlights examples of successful collaboration which can serve as models for future projects.

If SCDEs are to maximize their responsiveness to the changing needs of public schools and human services agencies, they must cooperate with state and local educational agencies. David D. Marsh, Assistant Professor in the School of Education, University of Southern California, discusses policy issues related to these new types of collaborative arrangements, including ways to develop, maintain, and expand collaboration, and the use of models and process guides in undertaking such efforts.

These authors offer a wealth of data, analysis, and recommendations for new pathways in policy development for the education of educators. They provide a crucial step toward realizing the Federal mandate.

THE NEED FOR POLICY DEVELOPMENT

Francis Keppel
Harvard University

Few will deny that education has to adjust to changing circumstances. However, the debate continues over which changing circumstances have the most significance and what contribution education can make in a changed society.

The past few decades have taught the public and professionals alike that education has only a limited leverage on social reform and change and that it is unwise for education to raise expectations too high. At the same time, it has become clear that educational policies and programs are likely to be affected by current political and social concerns. There is a need for education to develop a conscious plan for its own policy development. Central to such a plan is the part to be played by its schools, colleges, and departments of education (SCDEs).

In addition to considerations of economic, demographic, and social change, there are four factors that will increasingly play a role in the formation of educational policy development. The first of these is the availability of data on the results of schooling. Although it seems hard to believe, only recently has the nation (as contrasted to the local school system or college) had measures of what pupils learn in the usual school subjects. Furthermore, through the National Assessment of Educational Progress, trend line data are now available both to show change over time and to compare different types of schools and subjects. It therefore becomes possible to set targets and to measure progress (or the opposite) toward those targets in cognitive terms.

Schools are expected, of course, to accomplish more in society than transmitting subject matter effectively to future adults and future citizens. They are held partly responsible for teaching social discipline, for helping to motivate pupils to be good citizens, for helping to prepare youth for the world of work, for helping to ease racial discrimination. These missions are far more difficult to measure, despite the recent growth of an "evaluation" industry. Nevertheless, since the public reaches conclusions about the effectiveness of schools in these matters, the program of policy development must take these conclusions into account, however inadequate the evidence.

These data, both cognitive and "social," create a new situation for educational policy makers because they are available to everyone -- not just to teachers and administrators in the schools. If there ever was a time in which the schools could operate on the assumption that the professional was in charge -- which is doubtful -- that day is past. Policy development will have to take place in the full light of publicity and criticism. Student weaknesses shown in recent reports -- in reading, writing, mathematics -- form the base points from which future policy development will have to depart. The recent actions of dozens of state governments to require some kind of minimum standards, especially for the high school diploma, are facts which have to be taken into account.

To generalize, the coming decades will require that policies and programs be justified on the basis of quality, and that effectiveness be judged by similar measures. To many of us who have made our careers in education, this is not a happy situation. We are well aware that teaching and learning are too subtle to be pinioned on a statistic or series of statistics. We know that tests are not necessarily fair or dependable. But we will have to face the facts and deal with the data.

A second factor to be considered is the unionization of educational personnel, as a part of the greater trend of unionization of all public service workers. The time is past to debate whether the union movement is desirable; it is a fact and carries with it important implications for the nature and the process of policy development. The setting of policy by high administrative authorities or special commissions, without consultation and collaboration with teachers, will not be possible in the future. New structures will have to be devised to make such collaboration practical: the new teacher centers are an example. No longer can SCDEs assume that teachers will have to enroll in university education courses to get salary raises. From now on, teachers not only have their own views on what they need, but they have the instruments and the power to get what they want -- or at least to stop what they do not like.

When combined with other unionized public servants, the teachers have already won a position of substantial political influence at both state and national levels. SCDEs face a policy decision at the outset: Should they seek to make an alliance with these forces, or should they seek to countervail their influence? First priority must be given to reaching this difficult decision, since so many other policy developments will follow in its wake.

A third factor is more a matter of guess work than the first two: How will educational policy be influenced by external social forces? In

recent decades, education has been called upon to play a part in providing equality of opportunity and the reduction of racial discrimination in our society. In the 1950s it was called upon to improve America's competitive position in science as compared to the Soviet Union. What will be the comparable external forces of the 1980s and 1990s?

My own guess is that the nation will become more concerned with the relative weakening of its productivity. Today, the United States seems to be competing with Britain for the lowest rank among the developed, industrial societies. The effects of low productivity on the balance of trade, on the value of the dollar, and on inflation are already clear, and it is surely possible that political and economic attention will turn to this sensitive index of our society's effectiveness in the next few years. Far more will be affected than education, of course: the structure of jobs, developments in industrial democracy, the system of incentives. Yet it seems almost certain that the schools will be called upon to contribute, presumably by providing education and training that will make possible an increase in the productivity of the individual worker. It is possible, of course, that policy makers will conclude that the formal system of public education has already shown itself to be inept in this regard, and will turn to industrial and independent providers. But whether or not this is the case, the schools, colleges, and departments of education will have to develop a policy of their own in this regard. Their mission must surely extend beyond providing training and leadership only to the public schools.

One obvious possibility, reinforced by the generally unsatisfactory performance of schools -- particularly at the high school level -- is for the SCDEs to rethink their relation to the other parts of higher education that concentrate on subjects and skills, particularly the sciences and engineering. It is scarcely a secret that relations between faculties of education and faculties of science and engineering leave much to be desired.

To take part in a national effort to raise the rate of productivity by education and training will obviously require more than just instruction in teaching methods on educational policy. Scientific understanding and technical knowledge will be needed; these will presumably have to come from professors in these fields as well as from personnel from industrial and service sectors of society. Forging new links and cooperative programs will be necessary. Obviously, SCDEs, now on the defensive and under vigorous attack from many sectors of society, will have to plan a new strategy with regard to both intrauniversity and external relations. A continuation of present arrangements will result in further erosion of the academic standing and influence of the education profession.

Finally, another trend in contemporary affairs will surely affect planning by educators. Every issue that used to be described as domestic -- inflation, the value of the dollar, energy, productivity, cultural development -- has become intertwined with international relations. Intellectual isolation has become as risky as economic or military isolation. This trend will surely affect the planning of American educators, specifically with regard to what is taught in the public schools and colleges and in continuing education. There will be an increased demand for the teaching of foreign languages and foreign cultures. Fresh interpretations of the history of the United States in the larger context of global developments will be needed. Once again, collaboration with faculty members in the arts, social sciences, and sciences will be essential. Such a development may require a revision in the nature of the faculties of education, in which joint appointments with the faculties of the graduate and professional schools will have to be worked out.

Taking into consideration economic, social, and demographic factors, and the four additional factors described above, SCDEs may have to create a special group to analyze the issues involved in detail and to propose specific methods of consultation and planning. The analyses that follow in this volume in effect form an annotated agenda for such a program of policy development. It would be impractical for any single faculty member or department of education to undertake it alone. Nor should the difficulty of starting and maintaining such a policy development group be underestimated. It is tempting, when in a defensive position, to cut back on the scale of operations. This should not be permitted: Events are overtaking us.

DEMOGRAPHICS OF TEACHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS: IMPLICATIONS FOR POLICY MAKING

Ralph Cyr
American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education

A review of the current literature on teacher education and institutions of teacher education in the United States reveals that the most consistently recurring theme is the need for change. Starting with James Conant's The Education of American Teachers (1963), such works have also included B.O. Smith's Teachers for the Real World (1969), and Haberman and Stinnett's Teacher Education and the New Profession of Teaching (1973).

A more recent work in this area is Educating a Profession (Howsam, Corrigan, Denemark, and Nash, 1976), the Report of the Bicentennial Commission on Education for the Profession of Teaching (CEPT) of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE). This report contends that while teaching does not yet qualify as a profession as defined by contemporary organizational theorists, current conditions are favorable for teaching to make that "quantum leap forward" (p. 39). The body of the report is a critique of the current status of teaching and more specifically teacher education, with a comprehensive set of policy recommendations for effecting needed changes.

All of these works are based largely on perceptions and conceptualizations, lacking the empirical data to support either their findings or their recommendations. None are based on a comprehensive empirical study of teacher education. Indeed, this characteristic is common to the majority of the literature on teacher education. Clark and Guba (1977) found no systematic collection of basic data on schools, colleges, and departments of education (SCDEs) by the United States Office of Education (USOE). They state that existing data emphasize the diversity of SCDEs, and preclude simple generalizations and characterizations.

If institutions of teacher education are to develop strategies for change as well as to propose policies which will improve the quality and perceptions held of teacher education, we need a comprehensive picture of the structures and systems now in existence for the production of preservice teachers. We must also measure the capacity of these structures and systems for inservice training and knowledge production and use.

This chapter reports a study of the demographic characteristics of SCDEs in the U.S. There were three data sources for this study: 1) Research on Institutions of Teacher Education (RITE Project), an NIE-funded study conducted by David L. Clark and Egon G. Guba; 2) The National Study of the Preservice Preparation of Teachers, an NCES-funded study conducted by Lewin and Associates; and 3) the AACTE Management Information System (MINFO). These data were analyzed to produce normative and comparative data on SCDEs.

The Clark-Guba taxonomy, designed expressly for categorizing teacher education institutions, was used for data aggregation and analysis. The taxonomy is based on such criteria as accreditation, control, degree level, and enrollment. Its main purpose is to classify institutions of teacher education according to their likelihood of involvement in knowledge production and utilization activities, i.e., research, development, evaluation, dissemination, service, and adoption. However, the taxonomy is quite adaptable to general demographic analysis.

Presented here are descriptions of institutions within Clark-Guba taxonomic categories followed by analyses of selected demographic variables across the population of SCDEs.

Category 1: Public Doctoral Level Institutions

There were 113 institutions in Category 1, which was 8.2 percent of the population. The typical institution in this category was multipurpose, with a median total enrollment of 17,000 students and a modal enrollment of 15,000 to 20,000 students. All of the institutions in this category were regionally accredited. A large majority, 72.5 percent, of these institutions had NCATE accreditation at the doctoral level, and 92.3 percent had NCATE accreditation at some level. Almost all, 97.3 percent, of these institutions were AACTE members.

Education programs in Category 1 institutions were usually quite large, and, in addition to their graduate programs, these institutions were significantly involved in the preservice preparation of teachers. Over half, 54.9 percent, of these institutions granted more than 1,000 education degrees per year, including a median of 35 doctorates. Sample data indicated that Category 1 institutions granted yearly means of 768 bachelors degrees, 410 masters degrees, 23 specialists certificates, and 61 doctoral degrees. About one-fifth, 19.5 percent, of these institutions enrolled more than 10 percent of their students in education programs.

The modal and median size of the education faculty at Category 1 institutions was between 100 and 147. A median of 86 teaching, research, and other graduate assistants supported these faculty members, a ratio of over one assistant for every two faculty members. Based on RITE faculty sample estimates, Category 1 institutions employed a total of 11,380 FTE faculty members, which was 33.6 percent of the estimated population of education faculty.

Category 2: Private Doctoral Level Institutions

The 51 institutions in Category 2 comprised 3.7 percent of the population. The typical institution in this category was multipurpose, with a median total enrollment of 10,400 students. The modal enrollment for this category of institution was between 10,000 and 15,000 students. As in the case of the Category 1 institutions, all of the institutions in this category were regionally accredited. In contrast with the Category 1 institutions, however, just under half, 49.0 percent, of these institutions had NCATE accreditation at a doctoral level, and a large number, 35.3 percent, had no NCATE accreditation. A majority, 74.5 percent, of these institutions were AACTE members.

The SCDEs in Category 2 institutions granted a median of 347 education degrees per year, including between 10 and 24 doctorates, with a mode of 200 to 300 degrees per year. Data from the institutional sample indicated means of 182 bachelors degrees, 203 masters degrees, 30 specialists certificates, and 34 doctoral degrees granted per year. About one-tenth, 11.8 percent, of these institutions enrolled more than 10 percent of their students in education programs.

The modal size of the education faculty at Category 2 institutions was between 30 and 47 and they were supported by a median of 43 teaching, research, and other graduate assistants -- a ration of one graduate assistant per faculty member. Based on RITE faculty sample estimates, these institutions employed 1,568 FTE faculty members, or only 4.6 percent, of the estimated population of education faculty.

Category 3: Public Masters Level Institutions, Main Campus

There were 247 institutions in Category 3, which was 18.0 percent of the population. The typical institution in this category was multipurpose, with a median total enrollment of 5,588 students and a modal enrollment of between 5,000 and 10,000 students. Almost all of the institutions in this category, 96.0 percent, were regionally accredited. Just

over half, 55.0 percent, had NCATE accreditation at the masters level, and 72.0 percent had NCATE accreditation at some level. A large proportion, 89.9 percent, of these institutions were AACTE members.

Education programs at these institutions tended to be large, with the SCDE granting a median of 618 degrees per year. It is important to note the distribution of the number of degrees granted, as it was bimodal with peaks at between 600 and 700 degrees and over 1,000 degrees per year. This bimodality is due to the fact that a significant minority of these institutions, 21.1 percent, granted over 1,000 degrees per year. These institutions produced over 40 percent of the nation's education degrees per year. Institutional sample data indicated means of 498 bachelors degrees, 272 masters degrees, and 31 specialists certificates granted per year. Although Category 3 institutions as a group are most accurately typified as multipurpose, 54.3 percent enrolled more than 10 percent of their students in education programs.

The modal size of the education faculty at Category 3 institutions was between 47 and 75 FTEs. Data from the institutional sample indicated that the faculty was supported by a median of 17 teaching, research, and other graduate assistants. Based on RITE faculty sample estimates, Category 3 institutions employed 15,051 FTE faculty members, which was 44.5 percent of the estimated population of education faculty.

Category 4: Public Regional Masters Institutions

The 32 institutions in Category 4 comprised the second smallest category, only 2.3 percent of the population. The typical institution in this category was multipurpose, with a median total enrollment of 4,000 students and a modal enrollment of between 5,000 and 10,000 students. A majority, 84.2 percent, of the institutions in this category were regionally accredited, but only 26.3 percent had NCATE accreditation at the masters level, and over half, 55.3 percent, had no NCATE accreditation. Just under half, 47.4 percent, of these institutions were AACTE members.

Education programs at Category 4 institutions were much smaller than their main campus counterparts. SCDEs at these institutions granted a median of 247 degrees per year, with a mode of between 100 and 199 degrees. The modal size of the education faculty was between 10 and 19 FTEs. Data from the institutional sample indicated that these

institutions are likely not to have any teaching, research, or other types of graduate assistants.

Category 5: Private Masters Level Institutions

The 280 institutions in Category 5 made it the second largest category, with 20.4 percent of the population. The typical institution in this category was multipurpose, with a median total enrollment of 1,760 students and a modal enrollment of between 1,470 and 2,000 students. Almost all of the institutions in this category, 91.8 percent, were regionally accredited. Only 13.0 percent of these institutions had NCATE accreditation at the masters level, and 47.4 percent had no NCATE accreditation. Just over half, 53.2 percent, of these institutions were AACTE members. SCDEs at these institutions granted a median of 176 degrees per year, with a mode of 100 to 200 degrees. Institutional sample data indicated means of 105 bachelors degrees, 71 masters degrees, and 30 specialists certificates granted per year. A significnat minority, 17.1 percent, enrolled more than 10 percent of their students in education programs.

The size of the education faculty at Category 5 institutions was small, with a mode of between 5 and 9 FTEs. Institutional sample data showed that these institutions were unlikely to have any teaching, research, or other types of general graduate assistants. Based on RITE faculty sample estimates, these institutions employed 2,473 FTE faculty members, which was 7.4 percent of the estimated population of education faculty.

Category 6: Public Bachelors Level Institutions, Main Campus

There were 66 institutions in Category 6, which represented 4.8 percent of the population. The typical institution in this category was multipurpose, with a median total enrollment of 1,470 students and a modal enrollment of between 1,470 and 2,000 students. Almost all of the institutions in this category, 90.9 percent, were regionally accredited, but under half, 47.0 percent, had NCATE accreditation at the bachelors level. A majority, 77.3 percent, of these institutions were AACTE members.

SCDEs at these institutions granted a median of 195 degrees per year, with a mode of 100 to 199 degrees. Data from the institutional sample indicated a mean of 157 bachelors degrees granted per year. A

significant minority, 30.3 percent, enrolled more than 10 percent of their students in education programs.

Although these institutions granted approximately the same number of education degrees per year as the Category 5 institutions, they employed roughly twice the number of faculty members, with a mode of between 10 and 20 FTEs. Based on RITE faculty sample estimates, these institutions employed a total of 807 FTE faculty members, which was 2.4 percent of the estimated population of education faculty.

Category 7: Public Regional Bachelors Level Institutions

There were 26 institutions in Category 7, which made it the smallest category, with 1.9 percent of the population. The typical institution in this category was multipurpose, with a median total enrollment of 2,300 students and a modal enrollment of between 2,470 and 2,900 students. All of the institutions in this category were regionally accredited. Only 30.8 percent of these institutions had NCATE accreditation at the bachelors level. Just under half, 46.2 percent, of these institutions were AACTE members.

Education programs at these institutions were about the same size as those in Category 5 institutions. SCDEs at these institutions granted between 100 and 199 bachelors degrees and employed between 10 and 19 FTE faculty members.

Category 8: Private Bachelors Level Institutions

There were 556 institutions in Category 8, making this the largest single category, with 40.6 percent of the population. The typical institution in this category was multipurpose, with a median total enrollment of 768 students and a modal enrollment of between 470 and 900 students. Almost all of the institutions in this category, 90.0 percent, were regionally accredited, but only 18.9 percent had NCATE accreditation. Just under half, 49.8 percent, of these institutions were AACTE members.

SCDEs at these institutions granted between 47 and 75 degrees per year, with data from the institutional sample indicating a mean of 71 bachelors degrees granted per year. This translates to less than 10 percent of the education degrees granted nationally.

The size of the education faculty at Category 8 institutions was small, with a mode of between 5 and 10 FTEs. Some 15.3 percent of the

institutions had less than five FTE faculty members in education. Based on RITE faculty sample estimates, these institutions employed 2,532 FTE faculty members, which was 7.5 percent of the estimated population of education faculty.

Institutional Enrollment

The distribution of institutional enrollments across the population illustrates the diversity among institutions involved in the preparation of educational personnel. SCDEs existed in 72.6 percent of all four-year institutions of higher education, and these institutions ranged in size from the large public doctoral level institutions (Category 1) with a median enrollment of 17,000 to the private bachelors level institutions (Category 8) with a median enrollment of 768.*/

AACTE Membership

AACTE membership was related to degree level and control. Public institutions at all degree levels were more likely to be AACTE members than private institutions, and the higher the degree level granted the more likely an institution was to be an AACTE member. Overall, 62.4 percent of the population of SCDEs were AACTE members.

Education Degrees Granted

Table 1 depicts estimates of education degrees granted by the population of SCDEs. Education degree production was concentrated in Categories 1 and 3, i.e., public doctoral and masters level institutions. These institutions, which comprised 26.2 percent of the population of SCDEs, produced over 70 percent of all education degrees. At the other end of the spectrum, Category 8 institutions, which comprised 40.6 percent of the population, granted only 7.6 percent of all education degrees.

In addition to their doctoral programs, the Category 1 institutions were also large producers of masters and bachelors degrees. In

*/ Based on 1887 four-year colleges and universities for 1974-75, as reported in Yearbook of Higher Education, 1975-76, Chicago: Marquis Academic Media, 1975, p. 671.

Table 1

Estimates of Education Degree Production
and Number of SCDE Faculty

Category	Percent of Population	Education Degrees		SCDE Faculty	
		Number	Percent of Total	Number	Percent of Total
1	8.2	91,450	28.8	11,380	33.6
2	3.7	[illegible]	[illegible]	1,568	4.6
3	18.0	134,437	42.3	15,051*	44.5
4	2.3	6,962	2.2	N.A.	N.A.
5	20.4	31,062	9.8	2,503	7.4
6	4.9	9,312	2.9	807**	2.4
7	1.3	1,800	.6	N.A.	N.A.
8	40.6	24,112	7.6	2,532	7.5

* Combined with Category 4

** Combined with Category 7

fact, the preservice programs of the Category 1 institutions were the largest of any of the institutional categories.

Since education degree production was highest in Category 1 and Category 3 institutions, the percentage of education graduates from NCATE accredited and AACTE member institutions were much higher than the percentage of these institutions in the population of SCDEs.

SCDE Faculties

The data discussed in this section are based on responses from the RITE Project faculty sample. The RITE Project staff estimated that 33,841 FTE faculty were employed by the population of SCDEs, and the distribution of SCDE faculty by institutional categories followed very closely the distribution of numbers of education degrees granted. The average SCDE faculty member had over nine years of teaching experience in colleges or universities. A large proportion of these faculty members, 83.2 percent, held a doctorate, and 85.9 percent held their highest degree in education.

Comparisons with college and university faculty members in general indicated that SCDE faculty members tend to be slightly more concentrated at upper ranks, i.e., associate professor and professor, and significantly more likely to hold tenure. SCDE faculties were overwhelmingly white and male, and the number of females and minorities were proportionally greater at the lower academic ranks. However, SCDE faculties had a slightly better male to female ration than college and university faculties in general. In the area of faculty salaries, data from the National Study of the Preservice Preparation of Teachers indicated that SCDE faculty salaries compared favorably with other academic faculty salaries at all levels except professor. Specifically, SCDE faculty salaries were 5.5 percent higher for instructors, 1.8 percent higher for assistant professors, 7.1 percent higher for associate professors, and 10.3 percent lower for professors.

Finances

The data presented in this section are excerpted from a report of the National Study of the Preservice Preparation of Teachers (NSPPT) (1977). The NSPPT employed a national probability sample of 240 SCDEs, 480 SCDE faculty members, and 3,600 education students. The statistical findings of the study are estimated to have no more than a 5.0 percent error at the national level. Ten percent of the NSPPT sample institutions are also in the RITE sample.

While data on the total finances of SCDEs could not be obtained by the NSPPT, the staff did identify an important trend in the finances of institutions of higher education (IHEs) with SCDEs. In the 1974-75 academic year, 16.0 percent of all IHEs with SCDEs were projected to have excesses of expenditures over revenues. In the case of privately controlled IHEs, such excesses would result in operating deficits. In the case of publicly controlled institutions, such excesses would result in cost overruns, usually causing transfers of funds from one fiscal year to the next. The average size of these deficits and overruns was projected as 1.5 percent of the 1974-75 operating budget for public institutions and 3.1 percent of the 1974-75 operating budget for private institutions. The number of IHEs projected to have experienced deficits or cost overruns was 10.0 percent in the 1973-74 academic year, 6.0 percent in the 1972-73 academic year, and 11.0 percent in the 1971-72 academic year (pp. A-24, A-25). As IHEs experience financial difficulties, the SCDEs at these institutions will most likely be affected adversely in terms of decreased funding and a reduction in available resources.

Summary

The data presented here indicate that there are identifiable subsystems of teacher education institutions based on the demographic characteristics of those institutions. Preparation of educational personnel at both the inservice and preservice levels is a phenomenon of the public institution. In addition to being responsible for the largest share of all education degrees granted, public institutions are more likely to exhibit those characteristics presumed to be indicators of high-quality programs.

Despite the predominance of public institutions in teacher education, private institutions also have a substantial role in the teacher education subsystem, if for no other reason than their numerical predominance (the ratio of private to public institutions is almost two to one).

An important observation to be made about institutions of teacher education is that their characteristics are not generalizable at the population level. Government education policies that do not take into account the diversity of institutional types involved in the preparation of educational personnel will have unexpected effects due to differences in the institutions they affect. The same is true for sweeping indictments of the teacher education process accompanied by "recommendations for change."

Government policy makers can also use knowledge of the institutional subsystems in the teacher education system to evaluate extant policy.

For example, programs that systematically exclude state colleges (masters level public institutions) ignore one of the major sources of new teachers.

Presented here are a series of current issues in teacher education, along with demographic data that illuminate the issues in relation to subgroups of the population of SCDEs. The data are used in two ways: to describe the present situation in relation to the issues, and to formulate predictions of SCDE responses to the issues.

Implications for National Leadership

A major concern in teacher education today is the need for national leadership. Historically, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) has been the major national organization representing institutions for teacher education. At issue is whether a single, comprehensive, voluntary association can effectively represent teacher education institutions at the national level.

Institutional membership in AACTE is related to the level of the highest education degree granted by the institution and the type of control of the institution, i.e., either public or private. Public institutions at all degree levels are more likely to be AACTE members. Overall, 80.6 percent of the public teacher education institutions are AACTE members as compared with 62.1 percent of the privately controlled teacher education institutions. Although nearly three-fourths of all private doctoral level institutions are AACTE members, this proportion is far below the 97.3 percent membership level for public doctoral level institutions, and is only slightly above the percentage for public bachelors level institutions. At the bachelors level, only half (49.8 percent) of the privately controlled institutions are AACTE members. Although only 62.4 percent of the population of SCDEs are AACTE members, the fact that AACTE heavily represents the types of institutions that are the predominant producers of teachers makes the Association a significant actor in educational policy development.

This diversity and lack of cohesiveness in its membership in terms of institutional mission, needs, and concerns have led AACTE to adopt a mode of formulating national policy by consensus. Within the AACTE membership are several sub-organizational membership units that often have external reference groups and operate in loose confederations with AACTE. These units, which are essentially interest groups, are defined largely by common institutional characteristics. The three predominant sub-organizational

units are: (a) the Association of Schools and Colleges of Education in State Universities and Land Grant Colleges and Affiliated Private Universities (ACSESULGC/APU), analogous to the National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges (NASULGC) and composed of public and private doctoral level institutions; (b) the Teacher Education Council of State Colleges and Universities (TECSCU), analogous to the American Association of State Colleges and Universities (AASCU) and composed of primarily public masters level institutions; and (c) the Association of Independent Liberal Arts Colleges with Teacher Education.

In addition to these groups, AACTE also has semi-autonomous units in 46 states and territories. These units are governed by a national executive council that reports to, and is represented on, the AACTE Board of Directors. These sub-membership units provide the organizational framework for the process of consensus and compromise that AACTE employs in formulating policies; this system enables AACTE to speak effectively for the diverse population of teacher education institutions.

External Influences

The future directions of schools, colleges, and departments of education (SCDEs) are influenced by a number of external factors, usually beyond their control. For example, decision makers at the national level and SCDE client groups are currently exerting significant pressure on SCDEs in two areas: a) to implement field-based instructional programs at both the preservice and inservice levels, and b) to extend the length of preparation for initial certification from four to five years. Similar pressures are being applied in the area of educational equity, as evidenced by the NCATE's adoption of a standard on multicultural education. Many of these external factors take the form of legal mandates, as in the case of integration and, most recently, legislation concerning the handicapped. At issue is the capacity of SCDEs to respond to these external factors while continuing to maintain high-quality programs.

The response of SCDEs to these external factors is largely based on their institutional characteristics, specifically those which indicate available resources. The data show that significant subgroups of SCDEs are probably neither capable of responding, nor willing to respond, to external factors affecting them because of their limited resources and program scope.

Since SCDE budgets are almost always tied to "head counts," program size becomes an important determinant of available resources. Using

education degrees granted as an index of program size, the data depicted in Table 1 indicate that the largest education programs are likely to be found in public masters and doctoral level institutions, which comprise approximately 26 percent of the population of SCDEs but grant over 70 percent of all education degrees. Conversely, the smallest programs are most likely to be found in private bachelors and masters level institutions. Although private bachelors level institutions comprise over 40 percent of the population of SCDEs, they grant only 7.6 percent of all education degrees. Private masters level institutions comprise 20.4 percent of the population of SCDEs, but grant only 9.8 percent of all education degrees. Another good indicator of program resources is SCDE faculty size. Table 1 demonstrates that the estimated distribution of SCDE faculty members is strongly related to degree production. Public doctoral and masters level institutions employ an estimated 78.1 percent of all SCDE faculty members as compared to private bachelors level institutions, which employ only an estimated 7.5 percent. As one would expect, the largest programs employ the greatest number of faculty members.

Since tying SCDE budgets to student enrollments limits the ability of these units to engage in non-instructional activities, the availability of outside funding in the form of grants and contracts is central to an SCDE's ability to respond to external factors. Clark and Guba (1977), as an extension of the RITE Project, conducted sub-studies of SCDE productivity. One substudy, based on data from the Foundation Center, investigated private foundation grants to SCDEs. Another sub-study, based on data from the Smithsonian Science Information Exchange, investigated government grants and contracts to SCDEs. Data from these two sub-studies are depicted in Table 2. As can be seen, private and public bachelors level institutions cannot count on significant funding from either private foundations or government grants and contracts. Private masters level SCDEs and public and private bachelors level SCDEs receive about 1.5 percent of all funds awarded to SCDEs through government contracts and grants; public and private bachelors level institutions receive 6.9 percent of all funds received by SCDEs from private foundations.

These data describe a significant sub-population of SCDEs characterized by limited program scope and resources. The response of these SCDEs to external mandates to change their programs is likely to be unfavorable. For example, Public Law 94-142 mandates that all teachers receive training in appropriate methods for teaching the handicapped. For the head of an SCDE with five or six generalist faculty members, this is a difficult imposition. Not only are funds for faculty hiring or development

Table 2

Percent of Foundation Grants and Government Contracts to SCDEs by Institutional Type

Category	Percent of Foundation Grants	Percent of Foundation Funds	Percent of Government Contracts	Percent of Government Funds
1	35.79	30.99	59.59	59.02
2	33.69	43.73	26.94	23.27
3*	10.00	11.95	8.17	16.21
5	13.69	8.23	3.26	1.13
6**	2.64	3.59	.41	.18
8	2.64	1.08	1.63	.20
All Xs	1.58	.42	0.00	0.00

* Combined with Category 4

** Combined with Category 7

likely to be minimal or nonexistent, but the imposition of specialized competencies will probably be considered tangential to the mission of the SCDE. Faced with this set of decisions, the SCDE will either discontinue operations or implement a set of interim changes designed to delay full compliance.

In the case of extending initial preparation for teaching from four to five or more years, many institutions will be faced with an impossible situation, initiation of post-baccalaureate study at an institution staffed and funded only for four-year programs. In those institutions with post-baccalaureate programs in other disciplines it might be possible to extend education programs, but many institutions will either have to eliminate their education programs or modify them to act as feeder programs into nearby graduate level SCDEs.

Finally, in cases where external factors exert only a voluntary influence, such as the NCATE standard on multiculturalism, the likely response of these SCDEs will be noncompliance.

Supply and Demand

The nation continues to experience a severe oversupply of elementary and secondary school teachers. The most recent figures published by the National Education Association (1979) indicate that the supply of initially certified teachers was 194 percent of demand in fall of 1978. As a direct result of this oversupply, SCDEs have experienced severe enrollment declines. From a high of 322,000 students completing requirements for initial certification in the 1972-1973 academic year, the nation's SCDEs graduated only 190,000 students prepared for initial certification in the 1977-1978 academic year. Since this number of graduates is still 194 percent of demand, it is reasonable to expect that SCDEs will continue to experience enrollment declines, at least for the next few years.

SCDEs face another threat to enrollment in the form of reduced graduate degree production. In the early 1970s increased emphasis on in-service education and professional staff development, coupled with greater numbers of prospective teachers delaying entry into the profession by opting for graduate studies, caused a rise in graduate degree production. Annual report data from AACTE member institutions indicate that graduate degree production in SCDEs peaked in 1976 and is now beginning to decline.

At issue is the effect that continuing declines in enrollment will have on SCDEs. Available data indicate that, at best, the overall effect will be severe.

Declines in enrollment necessarily translate into reductions in available resources. These losses in resources can be absorbed more easily by larger SCDEs supporting multiple programs at the preservice and inservice levels than by small bachelors level SCDEs supporting only a few general preservice programs. For example, private bachelors level institutions grant only 50 to 75 education degrees per year and employ an average of five to ten FTE faculty members. This means that a number of these institutions employ only one or two faculty members. Faced with a staff reduction caused by declining enrollment, such a program may have no alternatives to ceasing operations or increasing costs sharply.

While some areas of teacher education are experiencing growth -- e.g., special education, career education, vocational education, and multicultural education -- these are fairly specialized programs likely to be found only in larger SCDEs. Bachelors level SCDEs are also unable to offer inservice education programs. Thus masters and doctoral level SCDEs will be able to offset enrollment declines partially through initiation of programs designed to meet new educational markets, but it is unlikely that private and public bachelors level institutions with their small, generalist faculties and limited resources will be able to initiate such programs. As noted above, larger SCDEs are also more likely than their smaller counterparts to be able to offset declines in institutional resources through outside contracts and grants.

While the effects of declining enrollment will be felt to some extent by all SCDEs, public and private bachelors level SCDEs will be the most affected. These institutions, with funding tied to enrollment, small generalist faculties, and little or no outside funding, will be hard pressed to maintain programs of acceptable quality. Unable to redirect their programs to meet new educational markets and faced with declining resources, many of these institutions will have no choice other than to cease operations.

Summary

This section has offered an analysis of crucial issues in teacher education based on the demographic characteristics of the SCDE population. The following observations become apparent:

- Issues confronting SCDEs are complex in that they have a variable impact on different subgroups of SCDEs.

- Demographic data on SCDEs are useful in describing the current status of issues affecting SCDEs.

- Since the response of subgroups of SCDEs to a given policy or intervention can be predicted based on demographic characteristics, the effects of a policy may be forecast.

- Planning and policy-making efforts that fail to account for the heterogeneity of the population of SCDEs will be ineffective.

The population of SCDEs is complex and diverse. Issues relating to SCDEs are also complex, and simplistic solutions to problems confronting them are unrealistic. Many seemingly attractive proposals for action or reform are rendered unworkable when analyzed in the context of the reality of teacher education.

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PLANNING FOR THE FUTURE: THE RESEARCH AND DISSEMINATION CAPACITY OF SCHOOLS OF EDUCATION

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The organizational function shared by all schools, colleges, and departments of education (SCDEs) is the preservice preparation of teachers. However, a large sub-group of these schools (671 in 1976) also maintain graduate programs at the masters and doctoral levels. As a result these institutions expend resources to support (1) in-service teacher education, (2) research and development (R&D), and (3) knowledge dissemination and utilization functions (D&U). On the basis of sheer numbers, graduate schools of education represent a potent force for educational knowledge production and utilization, competitive with such educational organizations as R&D centers, regional laboratories, private R&D agencies, teacher centers, and the various dissemination networks and centers.

This is a critical time period in which to examine the capacity of schools of education in R&D and D&U. These institutions are experiencing a recession in students and funding which may affect their capacity to perform institutional functions which have been previously taken for granted. If they are, in fact, key agencies in the nation's educational knowledge production and utilization efforts, explicit Federal policies may be justified to ensure their continued productivity. This chapter will consider three questions:

1. Are SCDEs a significant R&D and/or D&U resource in education?

2. What is the likely near-future for their capacity in research and dissemination?

3. Are there feasible interventions which might secure or improve the capacity of these agencies?*/

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*/ Data used in this paper were gathered during the school years 1974-75 and 1975-76 in a study conducted at Indiana University under a grant from the National Institute of Education. Points of view or opinions stated are those of the authors and do not represent National Institute of Education position or policy. Further details on the study are available in Clark and Guba (1977) and Lotto and Clark (1978).

SCDE Investments and Productivity in
Research, Development, and Dissemination

SCDEs have invested heavily in research, development, and dissemination functions (RD&D). At a formal organizational level they maintain literally hundreds of bureaus, centers, and institutes for educational research and dissemination. In support of dissemination and utilization activities alone, in 1976 the 671 graduate level SCDEs operated 550 bureaus of field service, centers or institutes oriented to dissemination or field activities, school study councils, leagues of schools, etc. Nearly all (94 percent) of these D and U centers were supported, at least partially, with local SCDE funds.

Their largest RD&D investment, however, comes not in the form of separate bureaus or agencies, but in the regularized released time of faculty members to pursue RD&D activities. Such arrangements are characteristic of almost all doctoral level SCDEs; consulting typically consumes as much as 25-30 percent of a faculty member's total load.

Evidence of institutional investment in a function area signals commitment, effort, and potential on which additional investments could build. However, investment does not guarantee return. Are SCDEs productive in research and dissemination? Among the graduate schools of education, nearly 100 are regularly involved in R&D and over 200 are active in dissemination and utilization. The intensity of the RD&D involvement in these SCDEs can be illustrated as follows:

- an NIE study of multiple reports accessioned by ERIC in 1973 from educational institutions and agencies listed 27 organizations as producers of 50 or more ERIC reports (NIE, 1976 Data book). Sixteen of the 27 were universities.

- Clark and Guba (1977) estimated that about $25 million annually was being invested in SCDEs through grants and contracts for RD&D activity.

- Lotto and Clark (1978) reported that over 80 percent of the faculty in all graduate SCDFs claimed recent involvement in local school service projects.

The relative productivity of SCDEs is indicated in Table 1; for example:

generated extensive inventories of both contextual conditions characteristic of, and external factors impinging on, SCDEs. In the Lotto and Clark (1978) study the authors generalized the factors and conditions most likely to affect future involvement in research and dissemination:

Contextual Conditions

1. Despite observations to the contrary, SCDEs have exhibited vulnerability to external factors and pressures for change.

2. SCDE budgets are tied more tightly to their line function of teaching than most observers have noted. However, among competing educational agencies they have more flexibility in responding to new programs than, for example, local or state education agencies because of their tradition of released time to faculty members for non-teaching activities.

3. The status attached to faculty activities and the SCDE reward system, especially in doctoral institutions, is weighted toward research and scholarly productivity.

4. SCDEs can only be understood in terms of their idiographic culture. Although freedom of choice on the part of SCDE faculty members increases flexibility of individual responses, it impedes building institutional commitment to new goal and activity areas. (Lotto and Clark, 1978, pp. 35-36)

External Factors

1. SCDEs will continue to experience the current "recession" in numbers of students, faculty members, and fiscal resources. This situation will create an environment of responsiveness to external demands or interventions, especially those which seem likely to be able to offset the effects of the recession with new tasks or funds.

2. SCDEs are an "old line" agency in education. They have received more than their share of criticism for inadequate past and current performance in conventional function areas. This situation encourages the establishment of new organizational entities, for example, regional educational laboratories or teacher centers to carry out functions which might have been supported in SCDEs.

TABLE 1

PRODUCTIVITY OF SCDEs AND OTHER AGENCIES IN EDUCATIONAL R AND D*/

AGENCY	PERCENT CREDITS	
	Research Journals	Practitioner Journals
SCDEs	64.7	52.9
Other University	11.6	6.0
University Subtotal	76.3	58.9
Local Education Agencies	2.6	25.9
State Education Agencies	.3	1.8
Non-Univ. R and D Organizations	5.0	1.5
Other	15.8	11.9
TOTAL	100.0	100.0

*/ This table was adopted from Clark and Guba, 1977, p. V-5

- Two-thirds of the publications in research-oriented educational journals were produced by SCDE faculty members; three-fourths were produced by university faculty members.

- Over half the articles in publications addressed to practitioners were produced by SCDE faculty members. Among educational agencies, SCDEs are significant contributors to the national output in educational RD&D.

The graduate level schools of education in the United States employ a regular, full-time faculty numbering over 30,000 individuals. Without being elitist in orientation, this human resource pool is in many ways elite. Not only are these faculty members highly trained, but they have typically been recruited from among practitioners in education with outstanding records of success. SCDEs are part of a larger university environment which has the intellectual resources and the organizational posture needed to support the school of education in RD&D. Included in these resources are ready access to graduate students who constitute a complementary, and relatively inexpensive, labor pool not available on the open market.

The first question posed for SCDEs should be answered positively on two counts. First, SCDEs have capacity and are making local investments in research and dissemination. Second, in both an absolute and a relative sense they are contributing significantly to the level of research and dissemination productivity in education. Among educational agencies they are the most productive single setting for conducting research and publishing the results of that inquiry for researchers and practitioners.

Likely Near-Future Productivity of SCDEs in Research and Dissemination

The probable RD&D productivity of SCDEs in the near future was projected from (1) data on their current productivity and involvement; (2) contextual factors within institutions of higher education (IHEs) and SCDEs which affect individual and institutional decision making in such units; and (3) external factors which seem likely to affect conditions within and decisions made by SCDEs.

The current productivity and involvement of SCDEs in RD&D was summarized in the preceding section. The 1977 Clark and Guba study

3. Organizations in recession have difficulty in responding to needed qualitative changes in or expansion of their services.

4. State and local education agencies and the organized teaching profession have been engaged in a struggle to wrest what they consider undue power, emphasis, and concentration of Federal funds from SCDEs. (Lotto and Clark, 1978, p. 38)

The net effect of these conditions and the predicted impact on SCDE capacities for research and dissemination productivity are characterized in Table 2 and discussed below.

Individual productivity. Overall, as a result of enrollment declines and budget cuts, there will be fewer faculty positions; in other words, there will be a decline in personnel in educational RD&D. The resulting labor force will be older, less adaptive, and more likely to be involved in heavier instructional assignments. SCDEs will be constrained in their ability to deploy personnel into emerging programs and less conventional areas, such as knowledge dissemination.

The behavior of individual faculty members will be modified by changes in the nature of the rewards, requirements, and opportunities provided by the institution for RD&D involvement. The SCDE will continue to interpret rigidly the research and publication criteria for promotion and tenure, yet will encourage the involvement of professional personnel in programs generating credit hours. Externally, there will be more opportunities for involvement with dissemination than with R&D activities. Although they will aspire to greater R&D productivity, professors of education, especially the younger faculty members, will be less likely to be involved with R&D and more likely to be involved with D&U projects than they are now.

Productivity in RD&D bureaus. As SCDE budgets and enrollments decline, the probable response will be to retrench around the primary function area -- teacher education. Sub-units which are oriented to research or dissemination are complementary function areas and, hence, will lose a measure of their institutional support. Individual bureaus or centers, if they are to survive at all, will seek external funds and a self-supporting modus vivendi. The shift in funding sources will necessitate a shift in substance -- instead of monolithic R&D or D&U centers, the sub-units will become ad hoc and transitory, changing their natures to fit funding opportunities. These changes, of course, foretell an absolute decline in the number of operating sub-units, and a reduction in an important and unique SCDE capacity for RD&D productivity.

TABLE 2

PREDICTED NEAR-FUTURE CHANGES IN SCDE CAPACITY FOR AND PRODUCTIVITY IN RESEARCH AND DISSEMINATION

Characterization	Capacity for Productivity		
	Individual, e.g., faculty members	Sub-unit, e.g., R and D centers	Institutional
Demography	. Fewer, older professors . More involvement in instructional credit hour activities; less R and D	. Smaller number of operating centers . Smaller number of professorial staff assigned to such centers	. Decline in number of high producing SCDEs in both research and dissemination
Type of RD&D Involvement	. Fewer, smaller R and D projects . More need to obtain outside support for R&D activities . Increased involvement in dissemination activities	. Increasingly ad hoc and opportunistic in program . Increased focus on dissemination and school improvement . Responsive to external funding opportunities	. Less emphasis of institutional mission in RD&D . Increased collaborative arrangements with other educational agencies
Support for RD&D Activities	. Decline in support for research assistants . Fewer external funding opportunities . Decline in support of pilot or seed projects	. Pressure to withdraw university budgetary support . Emphasis on self-supporting activities	. Decline in support for other than the teaching function

Summary: Institutional productivity in RD&D. There is little doubt that SCDE capacity in R&D and D&U is declining and will continue to decline without external interventions. The limited resources of SCDEs will have to be directed toward protecting the central institutional function, teacher preparation. R&D productivity will exhibit a sharper decline than D&U, since external funding opportunities for dissemination activities appear to be more promising. The answer to the second question posed in this chapter is clear: In the near future, the capacity for RD&D in SCDEs will continue to be affected adversely by recessionary trends.

Near-Future Alternatives

Recessions are sometimes predictable, always recognizable, never inevitable. If we accept the proposition that SCDEs represent a significant national resource in educational knowledge production and dissemination, it is possible to explore Federal interventions to forestall the erosion of that resource. Such interventions could be designed to sustain or even expand and improve the RD&D capacities of SCDEs.

We argue that there is no doubt about the position of SCDEs as the key agency resource in educational research and dissemination. For example:

- They are already investing institutional funds in RD&D.
- They have a trained, productive labor pool.
- Their current level of productivity is higher than competitive agencies.
- They are spread geographically across the country, and they are numerous, i.e., 100-200 units active in R&D and D&U respectively.

We exhort policy makers and planners concerned with educational RD&D to attempt to ameliorate the effects of the current recession. With planned interventions, the institutional capacity of SCDEs in research and dissemination can be maintained and strengthened. And, with reference to the preceding section for guidance, we believe that appropriate interventions would not require extensive demands for new funds or new programs.

Individual capacity. A major feature of the R&D capacity in SCDEs rests with individual scholars pursuing their basic and applied research interests. Even a modest switch away from highly specific Requests for Proposals (RFP) to field-initiated studies would fend off much of the predicted loss in individual capacity. Faculty members respond in great numbers to even unlikely funding sources for unsolicited proposals: At the National Institute of Education (NIE), unsolicited proposals are approved at a rate of approximately five percent. Without modifying the level of resources in R&D to any substantial extent, Federal funding agencies could re-direct their priorities to:

- Support individual faculty members in programs of field-initiated studies
- Re-initiate small grant and contract programs to encourage less experienced faculty members to become involved in R&D

RD&D bureau capacity. In recent years, the U.S. Office of Education (now the Department of Education) and NIE have supported the establishment of R&D centers and regional educational laboratories to increase educational research capacity. More recently, such networking arrangements as the National Diffusion Network (NDN) and the Research and Development Exchange (RDX) have been created to build up dissemination capacity. SCDEs have long maintained bureaus and centers devoted to R&D and D&U which, with modest support, could be sustained in their current efforts and stimulated to move in new directions. In some instances such as NDN, this support would involve little more than opening up the networking concept to involve SCDE units directly. Some new program emphasis could be placed on supporting extant SCDE networks, such as school study councils. In R&D, the bureaus are most in need of the institutional management support which characterizes NIE's special relationship with the regional laboratories.

Across the board support for several hundred bureaus, centers, and institutes would be wasteful and unrealistic. However, a number of R&D centers (20-25) and D&U arrangements (25-50) housed in SCDEs are distinguished centers of productivity well worth small supplementary investment.

Institutional capacity. NIE has experimented successfully with capacity-building programs in local and state education agencies, such as the State Capacity Building Program to improve dissemination activities

in state education agencies (SEAs). Within the population of SCDEs involved in RD&D are represented some of the world's truly outstanding institutional units in educational knowledge production. At least this small group of distinguished producers should be considered candidates for institutional grants to sustain their productivity in R&D. With the history of SCDE involvement in dissemination, it would be easy to justify using local contributions to complement Federal grants in encouraging SCDE dissemination activities.

Summary

The specific program suggestions offered in the preceding three sections are just some of the options available. The important point is that modest interventions at the national level now would aid in protecting an important institutional research and dissemination resource in American education. The specific illustrations are offered to indicate how interventions can be fitted to the contextual features of these organizations.

In Review

Schools, colleges, and departments of education are devoting a substantial amount of time and money to educational research, development, and dissemination. The end result of this investment has been high levels of RD&D productivity in SCDEs. Current enrollment declines and budgetary reductions in colleges and universities threaten the institutional capacity of SCDEs in both R&D and dissemination. National level policy makers should consider modest program interventions to offset this loss in capacity during the recession these agencies are currently experiencing. Attempting to replace or restore this capacity will, in the long run, be much more expensive.

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PREPARING EDUCATORS FOR NON-SCHOOL SETTINGS

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Introduction

In 1976, the Bicentennial Commission of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education framed a challenge for schools, colleges, and departments of education (SCDEs): "What the profession needs is a totally new set of concepts regarding the nature of the emerging human service society, its educational demands, the kinds of delivery systems necessary to provide public access to continuing educational opportunity, and the types of professional personnel and training required to reform public education." (Howsam, et al., 1976) To meet the emerging needs of this new society, Barbara Burch suggests that SCDEs must help to prepare "educational services professionals." These educators focus on the educational elements common to the human services, and serve such generalist functions as "coordinating or managing services, teaching, counseling, evaluation and research, disseminating, developing programs or materials, and providing information or instruction." (Burch, 1979, p. 6)

Yet the majority of SCDEs have not responded with the comprehensive reevaluation and retooling necessary to meet this challenge and prepare such professionals. Meanwhile, other sectors have recognized the need for educational personnel in non-school settings and have moved to fill that need. The opportunities continue to grow; the non-school settings continue to diversify. With imagination and foresight, SCDEs can be ready to face the future. As Cremin (1976) pointed out:

> . . . to think comprehensively about education we must consider policies with respect to a wide variety of institutions that educate, not only schools and colleges, but libraries, museums, day-care centers, radio and television stations, offices, factories, and farms. To be concerned solely with schools, given the educational world we are living in today, is to have a kind of fortress mentality in contending with a very fluid and dynamic situation. Education must be looked at whole,

across the entire life span, and in all the situations and institutions in which it occurs (p. 59).

This paper provides an overview of non-school markets for educational personnel, and offers recommendations for institutional change, modifications in leadership directions, and cooperative ventures involving the teacher education profession as a whole.

Overview of Non-School Markets

Business and industry. As noted by Robert Taylor in his chapter on business and industrial training programs, the demand for job-related adult education continues to grow. However, corporations have not turned to teacher education institutions to provide trainers for their employees. Reporting that many corporations, including IBM, Xerox, General Electric, and AT&T now offer bachelor's degrees as credentials for their training programs, McQuigg (1980) notes that colleges and universities are hard pressed to compete. Concludes McQuigg, "The continuing inability of traditional U.S. educational institutions to respond promptly to changing learning needs may explain better than any other factor the expanding role of corporation and profit making schools in post-secondary education." (p. 324)

Even though industry spends 74 percent of its educational budget on training to keep up to date with the volume of scientific and technical information which doubles every eight years, Mills (1977) finds that increased resources are being spent on the kind of education that is related to the "quality of life" in the work setting. Springborn (1977) suggests that the rationale for these expenditures is that the organization that trains its workers is safeguarding its position today. However, the organization that also educates its workers is preparing for its place in the future.

It is important to note that educational roles in business and industry go beyond teaching roles, ranging from administration and counseling to educational technology and media production. In the last category, educational personnel fill such roles as publishers, educational equipment suppliers, providers of specialized educational services, researchers, consultants on educational management, designers of curricula, and evaluation specialists. For the first time, business and industry are outstripping the schools in use of audio visual educational materials: According to Ruark (1980), sales of training and communication media to corporations totalled $2.5 billion in 1978, while similar sales to schools totalled $1.6

billion. SCDEs must be aware of this expanding market and prepare their graduates to compete for places in it.

Federal government. Both in Washington-based Federal agencies and in federally-sponsored programs across the country, the government is a significant employer of educational personnel. Training divisions are part of most Federal agencies, and recently-legislated programs such as the Youth Employment and Demonstration Projects Act require educational personnel to function as administrators, counselors, and trainers of underprivileged youth. This multi-billion dollar program, part of the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act (CETA) features projects linked to secondary schools. SCDEs have the capacity to train personnel for this effort, yet few colleges and universities have contacted their local CETA prime sponsors -- often local government agencies -- to work out cooperative training arrangements. Unless SCDEs take the initiative in forming new partnerships, alternative training enterprises will proliferate to meet the demands for specialized educational personnel. The challenge is intensified because individuals affiliated with such efforts as CETA may feel that the educational establishment has already failed to meet the educational needs of unemployed youth, and may be skeptical about SCDE-based training programs for project personnel.

Health care system. Health care delivery is a key market for trained "educational services professionals." For example, the Joint Commission on Accreditation of Hospitals has mandated that regular in-service education must be conducted for virtually all hospital staff members. While patient education is becoming increasingly important, a recent HEW report (U.S. Center for Disease Control, 1977, pp. 3-4) indicated that the majority of coordinators of such programs lacked training as educators. The report concluded that "indications are that many feel a need to gain skills in education, management, and evaluation." As Burch (1979) points out, some states and professional associations are making mandatory continuing education a condition for relicensure and recertification in health professions. SCDEs could prepare the educators who staff such retraining and renewal programs.

Survey of Existing Programs

Many schools of education can boast about the diverse settings in which their graduates are employed. However, it is not always clear whether the SCDEs have offered comprehensive training programs, or merely assisted with placement after graduation from a traditional teacher training curriculum.

According to a survey conducted among AACTE member institutions in 1977, 72 SCDEs reported having operational degree programs to prepare personnel for non-school settings; an additional 38 institutions were planning such a degree program.

A more recent survey, presented at the AACTE-sponsored conference on Human Services Education in December 1979, shows an increase in the number of institutions with programs of this type. Market surveys reported at the same conference by Richard Brandt and Robert Covert (1979) show a demand for graduates from these newly-designed programs.

Barbara Burch offers a useful analysis of the design of successful training programs. They are usually structured with three components: 1) a professional core, focusing on generic competencies; 2) a specialized role preparation component; and 3) supervised field experiences. Burch notes that most programs are based on a general education background, and are "individualized, interdisciplinary, developed with the approval of an advisory committee, and take into consideration the individual's career goals, special interests, previous training, and work or volunteer experience, and competencies." (1979, p. 12)

The Special Contribution of SCDEs

In the future, there will be at least three levels on which SCDEs can operate their programs for preparing educators for non-school settings. Each successive level will require a more comprehensive reform of current programs and purposes.

On the first level, SCDEs can offer their skill and knowledge to anyone who provides a teaching or learning service in any agency, not just to those who are labeled as trainers. The most significant quality in every helping relationship is a teaching-learning interaction, and the knowledge and skills which SCDEs can teach can increase the effectiveness of these interactions. There is ample evidence indicating that certain generic skills are essential to every helping relationship (Cole and Lacefield, 1978, pp. 115-123). SCDEs should share this knowledge and skill with all helping service professionals.

At the second level, SCDEs can help to create new roles and prepare personnel to fill them. Two examples come to mind. As the concept of de-institutionalization is implemented, and youth offenders are placed in foster homes, a new professional who is a combination of teacher and

counselor is being prepared as the liaison between the foster parents and the school. The school then becomes a partner in the rehabilitative effort, serving as a component of the human service delivery system rather than a separate entity. This particular rehabilitative strategy uses an education professional to oversee the total environment of the client, providing an essential condition for successful rehabilitation. Another example is the provision and training of surrogate parents who represent handicapped children at due process hearings under the equal rights aspects of P.L. 94-142, The Education for All Handicapped Children Act. This representation can either be viewed as an adversary role, or properly implemented, can produce a new constructive relationship between home and school. Competent educational preparation will make the difference.

On the third and most far-reaching level, SCDEs have a unique opportunity to take the lead in unifying all parts of the human service delivery system in a community or a state. Education is the crucial component common to all other human services. Therefore, education should take the initiative in developing collaborative or unified programs across all the human service professions. By bringing together the educators -- administrators, curriculum designers, teaching strategists, adult learning specialists, counselors -- who serve in non-school settings, education could become the key leadership group for the total system. These educators could discuss not only their respective roles in a particular agency, but the goals of the total human service delivery system.

For example, the concept of de-institutionalization pervades all human service agencies today (e.g., P.L. 94-142 is bringing the handicapped back into the schools; community health agencies are developing group homes to bring the mentally disturbed back to community settings for rehabilitation; corrections programs are bringing youth offenders back to the communities in foster homes). SCDEs, working through the educators in each agency, can foster collaboration around pervasive social themes like de-institutionalization and access. Beyond these current themes, SCDEs could help to identify and disseminate among all human service educators ideas for ensuring healthy human communities in the future. SCDEs could make such concepts the central themes of the curriculum for human services education in the 1980s.

Recommendations

There are three areas in which changes must be effected if SCDEs are to expand their mission and respond effectively to the need for well-trained educational services professionals. Most are institutionally-based

changes, but one involves the higher education community as a whole, and another requires an individual effort by SCDE leaders.

It is tempting to plunge immediately into the business of training personnel for human service agencies, and for business and industrial training programs. However, it is unrealistic for SCDEs to announce their availability as the training and development arm for all education professionals without first assessing their capabilities and preparing for this expanded mission. Federal assistance is crucial for the redesign and retooling that schools, colleges, and departments of education must undergo.

The institutions that enter this movement as a short-term effort to employ their graduates during a time of apparent teacher surplus will fail. In the process these colleges will do a disservice to this movement and to the education profession because of the fundamental nature of the changes that must be made in current programs.

The following recommendations are a response to the crucial question: How can we help all those in the helping professions to become more effective educators?

1. Support new legislation. Enacted as part of the Education Amendments of 1980, the "Schools of Education Assistance Act" provides a valuable vehicle for SCDE redesign and redirection. SCDEs are eligible, under Title V, Section 533 of the Higher Education Act (PL 96-374), for grants of up to $200,000 for model preservice and inservice projects and faculty development activities (see Introduction and Appendix to this book). Authorized projects under this section focus on preparing educators to meet emerging needs in such areas as community and adult education, career education and training, and urban and environmental policy implementation.

In addition to this legislation, specific resources earmarked by the National Institute for the study of multiple settings should be expanded substantially. The domains suggested by NIE as the focus of investigation of non-school settings are exciting additions to the study of education; they show that NIE recognizes the changing nature of education in homes, communities, and work settings for children, youth, and adults (NIE, 1979, pp. 16-19).

In addition, a Clearinghouse for Information on Non-School Settings should be modeled on the ERIC Clearinghouse on Teacher Education, or the

scope of the current Clearinghouse should be expanded to provide information on non-school settings. AACTE should work with other agencies in developing a Federal grant proposal for such a Clearinghouse which could be located at 1 Dupont Circle. Until the funds for a Clearinghouse are provided, AACTE should continue to foster an information exchange between institutions with programs for human services educators and those planning to develop them.

2. Finance studies with existing resources. Individual SCDEs should commit a portion of their own resources to the study of education in non-school settings. It should not be assumed that present programs prepare personnel adequately for current or future new roles in non-school settings. In fact the credibility of any institution wanting to be involved in this movement will remain limited until it undertakes an intensive first-hand study of the non-school settings toward which its programs are to be redirected. Studies must include field analysis of actual settings as well as reviews of the current literature (see Berman, 1979). These studies must be planned with representatives from non-school settings so that trust, the essential ingredient for any new partnership, can be developed.

Many people in non-school settings feel that SCDE personnel are not well informed about their settings. They believe that even when SCDEs have the knowledge, they lack the capacity to keep their curriculum responsive to the needs of personnel in non-school settings (Doll, 1980). The research and curriculum designed to serve non-school settings must originate in those settings; findings and products must be used to improve practice in those settings.

3. Devise interdisciplinary strategies. Since the study of non-school settings will involve several departments within a college of education, mechanisms for interdisciplinary study and program development must be created. New interdisciplinary and interdepartmental centers may be a vehicle to stimulate the sharing of interdisciplinary personnel resources. These new centers or institutes can also provide visible examples of the new directions SCDEs are taking, as well as presenting a much needed change of image for SCDEs; many people still view them as only preparing teachers for public schools. Some SCDEs may even choose to change their names to reflect these new missions. The College of Education and Social Services at the University of Vermont, and the College of Education and Human Services at the University of Wisconsin at Oshkosh are two examples. Totally new colleges, such as the College of Human Resources in New York City, are also being created with the specific mission of serving personnel needs in non-school settings.

4. Promote cooperative planning and flexibility. Since, as previously mentioned, the knowledge and skill base essential for developing effective programs for the preparation of educators for non-school settings will draw on many disciplines and the resources of several departments, joint planning will be essential. Cooperative efforts must extend across departments within the SCDE and the larger university, as well as involving the agencies in which students will be placed for a wide range of field experiences, including internships and apprenticeships. Prior interdisciplinary efforts have too often been stifled by arguments over "turf," course credit hours, and head counts. Institutions able to overcome these obstacles will be those in which faculty members understand political and institutional realities and advocate flexibility and interdisciplinary cooperation.

The National Board on Graduate Education provides some suggestions of particular relevance to those embarking on new academic programs to prepare educators for non-school settings. In their 1975 report, the National Board stated that:

> The time may come when the steady advance of knowledge and the increasing complexity of our society will make some form of graduate education a virtual necessity for large numbers of the populace . . . . Graduate programs with an applied practitioner focus, serving the needs of new clientele groups with different interests from the traditional graduate student, must also be provided. Changes in university policy to create more flexible admissions procedures, to extend eligibility for financial support to part-time students, to alter residency requirements, and to offer courses at more convenient times for working students will be necessary in those universities that emphasize graduate programs for part-time and older students. In the future, graduate programs of clear and established excellence will survive; programs with an applied focus that lead to professional, non-academic employment will survive; and many of the newer programs for part-time and older students, if well thought out in terms of local needs and opportunities, will be successful. The programs in greatest jeopardy will be those with no distinguishing characteristics in terms of excellence, mission, or clienteles served (pp. 21, 37, 59, 60).

5. Give research and evaluation high priority. SCDEs, particularly those in the research universities, should look at the expanding non-school settings as fertile fields for educational research. Research of this nature should start from a broadened view of educational settings in which schools are seen as a sub-system in a larger macro-system of education.

Research on non-school settings should provide distinctions among the various settings and the particular knowledge and skills essential for competent professional practice in each setting. In addition, further work must be done on identifying the generic knowledge and skills which span all educational settings. Also, research studies should include examination of collaborative models in which there is an interlocking relationship between training and improvement at all levels of the educational spectrum.

Furthermore, research by individual institutions will be needed to determine the particular non-school setting or settings toward which a particular institution should target its training efforts. For example, some institutions may choose to focus on industrial and business settings while others may focus on particular types of human services settings. Each institution must develop criteria for making these decisions and carry out research on each of the criteria identified. The quality of the programs will ultimately depend on the quality of the research and evaluation effort that goes into these initial decisions regarding purpose and focus.

6. Introduce new staff development approaches. Since the preparation of personnel for non-school settings will be a new venture for many SCDE faculty members, they must make a commitment to staff development. The most significant activities will be those that are built into the daily professional life of the faculty. A good place to start is with a resource assessment of those who have knowledge of, or experience with, education in non-school settings or have an interest in learning more about this new direction. In a field changing as rapidly as education, those who want to learn are as much a resource as those who now know, and they must be given an opportunity to participate in new developments. In fact, the aim should be to get everyone in the professional community to participate either actively or by accepting the new mission as worthy of pursuing. In other words those who will not agree to participate should at least agree not to hinder the effort. Experience has shown that if the commitment to study non-school settings and develop

alternative models of preparation is not valued by the whole community, those who do participate may become isolated, and at worst may be penalized in the process of peer review for promotion and tenure.

7. Emphasize compatibility with existing missions. SCDEs should look at the preparation of educators for non-school settings as a natural extension of their mission to prepare educators for schools -- not as a replacement for these programs. Even though present programs cannot be substituted as programs to prepare personnel for all educational settings, as previously mentioned, there is a substantial body of educational knowledge and skill that is generic and applicable to multiple education settings. That current knowledge and skill base is a good point from which to build the new setting-specific knowledge and skill base.

College personnel must be sensitive to the ways school and non-school settings link. They should understand that rather than being competitive, the operation of school and non-school professional preparation programs in the same institution makes good sense. As Chenault and Burnford (1978) point out, this approach is cost efficient because some of the present resources can be employed for preparation programs for both school and non-school areas. Also, alternative programs provide opportunities for students to increase their job mobility across systems, increase their upward mobility within systems (career ladder), increase job mobility across communities, increase qualifications to compete in job market entry, and increase professional competence in present jobs.

While compatibility between the new and the old is important, SCDEs should not minimize the opportunities for learning which are inherent in the process of evaluation and priority setting that go on when institutions reallocate personnel and fiscal resources to new directions. Indeed, the most vivid truth that emerges from a review of the current educational scene is that this new, exciting mission for SCDEs may have arrived just in time to shake them out of their current doldrums and revitalize them for the challenge of the 1980s.

8. Foster leadership in collaboration. A new kind of leader will be needed in SCDEs to respond positively and promptly to the challenge of preparing educators for non-school settings. The new leaders will need to know how to work effectively not only within the setting of their own institutions, but with diverse groups in unconventional educational settings.

Versatility, imagination, a sense of social purpose, a futures orientation, and instructional and administrative ingenuity will all be

necessary professional strengths of the new leaders for the expanded education profession. But the most important characteristic of the new educational leaders will be the ability to develop collaborative relationships which link organizational units with similar educational purposes.

The name of the game for leadership today is collaboration. Modern society puts a premium on organization, on system, on cooperation between units having common purpose or overlapping interests. It is a day of "calculated interdependence," of involvement, of "planned togetherness." Life today is made possible by cooperation, by arranging interlocking complexities, by consciously making things more complicated. And the reason is simple. The complexity of modern society requires a pooling of knowledge and a sharing of resources to achieve a given goal (Nyquist, 1974).

Leaders in SCDEs can no longer preside over their institutions in splendid isolation. Constructive relationships must be established with the Federal government; with private educational institutions; with public agencies in such fields as health, environment, welfare, housing, community planning, libraries, television, the performing arts, business, industry, and other settings which have up to now stood on the edges of the formal teaching, learning, and social services processes. SCDEs are now called upon to educate researchers, teachers, counselors, administrators, and other education specialists. These personnel will work in the Federal government; regional educational laboratories; research and development centers; television councils; special programs to help the aging, the poor, and the handicapped in community action centers and social service agencies; industrial establishments like Xerox, IBM, and Time-Life; and other agencies developing curricular materials and instructional systems. These are just some new interlocking complexities with which educational and social service leaders must cope, and for which their educational preparation and previous experience has probably not prepared them.

Elementary and secondary schools and colleges are now part of a system of continuing education for a large majority of America's people. SCDEs can become obsolete, or they can become the training and research arm of this new, expanding educational delivery system. The time is right for SCDEs to seize the initiative, to broaden the dimensions of the educational profession in the 1980s by developing collaborative unified programs across all of the settings which employ educators.

In a very real sense the future of the educational profession is at stake in this decision. As the AACTE Bicentennial Commission (Howsam, et al., 1976, p. 44) stated: "Only when educators reflect an enlarged view of the settings in which education is a vital function will the profession reach its full maturity."

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DEMOGRAPHY, QUALITY AND DECLINE: THE CHALLENGE FOR SCHOOLS OF EDUCATION IN THE 1980s*/

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Introduction

Driven by demography and economic exigency, the U.S. educational system faces a long period of diminishing demand and new competition for public dollars. Proportional shrinkage is not what we face. As Nathan Keyfitz (1978) of Harvard and others have pointed out, the educational system as a whole is not homogeneous and capable of retaining its essential shape and capabilities.

Undergraduate enrollments, rising sharply in the 1960s because of the combined forces of demography, economy, and social change, produced a "chain letter" effect in education. Graduate programs, new training, and research projects expanded rapidly to prepare the new leaders for a growing educational system. Like the promise of the chain letter, growth produced the illusion that everyone would be rich -- as long as a steady stream of new participants could be found. The chain is now broken. The stream of new entrants is drying up and the educational system and its preparing institutions are threatened.

By far the most serious threat posed by decline is injury to the process of selecting the most talented members of each cohort and placing them eventually in roles as leaders in research, administration, and teaching. We are challenged to devise a system that attracts the most talented into education at a time of severe market stress. The creation of new knowledge, the emergence of leadership in the field, and the continuation of positive change are dependent upon a solution to the "education brain-drain."

The problem has already had a very disturbing effect. Schools, colleges, and departments of education are now selecting potential educators from among the least academically talented populations applying

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for college admission. The decline in academic skills evident in the applicant pool extends from enrolled freshmen to graduating seniors who majored in teacher education. The worst news is that the score declines are also being passed through to the K-12 classroom.

If it is a reasonable expectation that new teachers ought to be able to read and write sentences, recognize common words, add, subtract, and multiply numbers with at least average proficiency, then the discovery that such skills are not average and have diminished would be cause for alarm. The education profession must be able to make the claim that its members are competent in the basics they are teaching, because it is a reasonable presumption that such competencies are necessary for effective teaching. That it is also empirically the case is immaterial. It is simply a reasonable requirement that those who attempt to develop literacy in the young be themselves literate.

The purpose of my recent research has been to investigate three conditions presumed to be interrelated: 1) a decline in the job market in teaching; 2) a shift in student preferences away from the field of education; 3) a sharp decline in test scores of college-bound students and enrolled freshmen who intend to study in education, and a pass-through of the score decline to graduating seniors and to those who find teaching positions.

Research on this subject has particular significance when one considers that birthrate declines since the mid-1960s will exert downward pressure on college enrollment for at least two decades. The current institutional responses to the collapse of the teacher job market in the 1970s may be more than a portent of coming adaptations in higher education. These reactions may have locked institutions into an irreversible course, sacrificing absolute standards but offering little in the way of creative policy alternatives. If my findings are any indication, programs undergoing market stress in teacher education have responded by lowering academic standards to attract more students -- and by doing little else. The result has been few if any realistic new career options for students, plus a significant net decline in the academic quality of students entering the field of education. The situation raises some crucial questions about quality, choice, and institutional survival.

Findings on the Academic Quality of New Teacher Graduates

The average SAT verbal and math scores of college-bound high school seniors who planned to major in education were well below average for all

college-bound seniors tested in 1976 (34 points below average on verbal scores, 43 below average on math scores). The education field ranked lower than the six other largest college majors: business administration and commerce, biological sciences, engineering fields, health and medical fields, physical sciences, and social sciences. These fields plus education comprise 68.6% of the sample of college-bound students who indicated a college major and an interest in studying for a baccalaureate degree or higher. Data obtained from the American College Testing Program (1972, 1976) show essentially the same thing. The ACT English and math scores of the college-bound sample indicating an education major have declined significantly since 1970, and at a more rapid rate than those of the national college-bound population as a whole. The most significant deterioration in academic quality is in the area of quantitative skills. While the ACT English test score declines since 1970 are significant, they are exceeded by mathematics test score declines.

Of 19 fields of study reported by ACT for enrolled college freshman in 1975-76, education majors were tied for seventeenth place in math scores and fourteenth on English scores. The 19 fields comprise 84.2 percent of the ACT-tested students who enrolled as freshmen in 1975. The test scores of elementary and secondary education majors enrolled as college freshmen in 1975-76 have declined significantly as compared with 1970-71 scores.

Among graduating college seniors in the National Longitudinal Study (NLS) sample, class of 1976, education majors ranked fourteenth out of 16 fields (including "other" and "undecided") on SAT verbal scores. The only two groups of graduating students with lower SAT-V scores than teachers were those studying in office-clerical and vocational-technical fields. The education SAT-V scores were 46 points below the average of graduating seniors. On the SAT math test, education majors ranked fifteenth among the 16 fields. Only office-clerical ranked lower. The education SAT-M scores were 52 points below the scores of the average graduating senior. The cumulative college grade-point average shows that education majors ranked twelfth of the 16 majors, with a GPA of 2.82. (The average GPA for all graduating seniors was 2.97.)

On the NLS vocabulary, reading, and math tests, senior education majors as a group were below the population means. In vocabulary, only agriculture-home economics, clerical, and public service majors ranked below education majors. On the reading test, only agriculture-home economics and clerical-office majors ranked below education majors; and on the math

test only public service and office-clerical majors ranked lower than education majors as a group.

The Graduate Record Exam verbal and nonverbal test scores among education majors have declined significantly since 1970. Scores of education majors were substantially lower than scores of majors in eight other professional fields compared in 1975-76, and teachers' scores have fallen at a faster rate than the overall GRE scores since 1970. Finally, National Teacher Examination scores have also declined significantly during the five-year period from 1969-70 to 1974-75 (the most recent date for which data are available). The net score decline is 20 points (581-561), significant beyond chance.

A comparison of the NLS sample of education majors, class of 1976, who did and did not find teaching jobs shows that on four of five measures in competence in math, reading, and vocabulary, those not teaching (presumably employed elsewhere) have higher test scores than those teaching. The exception occurs in math, where NLS math scores favor the teachers 55.90 to 55.80. The only differences that approach statistical significance are in the SAT-V and SAT-M scores. Nonetheless, it is important to note that the process of teacher selection and placement does not result in the selection of more academically competent teachers. It is not clear whether the choice rests with the education major (more academically gifted students may not seek teaching positions) or whether the choice is primarily determined by employers. It is clear that a large majority of the 1976 education majors sought teaching positions. (Borinsky, 1978).

It is interesting to note that the teaching candidates who were hired did have slightly higher grade-point averages than those not hired (2.86 versus 2.79), perhaps suggesting that employers do use grades as a measure of academic performance and as a guide to hiring teachers.

It has been argued that education faculties sort out the academically weak students prior to student teaching and graduation. The NLS data do not support that argument, at least insofar as basic skills in reading, math, and vocabulary are the selection criteria. Instead, I find that teacher education is the field showing the least selectivity, from college-bound applicant to completion of degree, among the programs for which comparable data are available (greater selectivity being defined as rising test scores).

A comparison of test scores for the 1972-73 college-bound sample and the class of 1976 graduates shows an increase in average verbal and

math test scores. (The SAT-V scores rise from 445 to 491 and the SAT-M scores rise from 481 to 527.) Some fields show a greater degree of selectivity than others. For instance, the difference between applicants and graduating seniors on the SAT-M is greatest for students majoring in physics and math, health-related fields, business, engineering, and vocational-technical fields. The fields showing the least amount of selectivity are education (ranked lowest in net change in both math and verbal tests among the 10 fields that could be analyzed), followed in order by biology, social science, and agriculture-home economics majors. It could not be said, on the basis of these data, that selectivity, or lack thereof, takes place at college entry or after admission.

A comparison of ACT college-bound students with enrolled college freshmen one year later suggests that the selection standards for elementary and secondary education majors have changed significantly since 1970. The ACT English and mathematics scores of college-bound applicants planning elementary and secondary education majors in 1969 were significantly lower than the elementary-secondary majors who enrolled as freshmen one year later (using data from 1,128 colleges and universities that use ACT scores). However, ACT English and math scores among students in the college-bound applicant pool in 1974 (those who planned elementary and secondary education majors) did not differ significantly from college freshmen in elementary-secondary education the next fall, 1975.

In comparing other fields, it is generally the case that among the career-oriented majors, selection standards appear to have changed most significantly since 1970. Among the science and science-related fields no apparent change has occurred. With few exceptions, freshmen in the sciences and engineering did not differ significantly from the previous year's applicants in either 1970 or 1975. Keeping in mind the limitations of these data, it is apparent that "soft" professional fields were admitting higher percentages of students in 1975 than in 1970, and it is among these students that the largest score declines are occurring. With the exception of psychology and secondary education, the fields that show a 10 percent or greater decline in English or math scores also show a substantial rise in acceptance.

The findings of George Nolfi, et al. (1978) indicate that students are constrained by test scores not only in selecting their fields of study but also in choosing an institution. Money also plays a very significant role. Low-income students are more likely to choose colleges consonant with their abilities or one they can attend while staying at home. They are not likely to select colleges with average test scores above their own.

These findings may help in part to explain the lag in adjustment of preparing institutions to the widely reported surplus of teachers. College Entrance Examination Board data indicate that the majority of teacher education candidates come from families with incomes that are average or below average, and they have relatively low SAT scores. Such students tend to be concentrated in the four-year colleges. Given the constraints of institutional and college major selection among this population, many have no choice other than teacher education if they wish to attend college.

It has been suggested that the mean verbal and math test scores of students majoring in the professions, and particularly in education, might have been negatively affected by an influx of minority students (National Public Radio, December 1977). The assumption is that the professions, specifically education, tend to be open to and to attract larger proportions of nonwhite students than the arts and sciences. My analysis of the NLS data supports neither contention. There is not a larger proportion of nonwhite students in education than in other career fields*/ (all career fields having a smaller proportion of minorities than do arts and sciences), and the presence of minorities among graduating education seniors has virtually no effect on test scores.

If one divides graduating seniors in the major fields into career-oriented fields, arts and sciences, and engineering, the proportion of white and nonwhite students shows the following: 1) the fields with the largest population of nonwhite students are the arts and sciences (10.12 percent), not the career-oriented fields (8.13 percent); 2) the engineering fields have the lowest proportion of nonwhites (4.60 percent) and agriculture-home economics the highest proportion of nonwhites (13.50 percent); and 3) the proportion of nonwhites among education majors is 8.20 percent, just slightly higher than the average for the career fields as a whole (see below).

Fields	Nonwhite	Total	Percent
Career Fields	16,967	208,644	8.13
Arts & Sciences	15,583	153,980	10.12
Engineering	747	16,222	4.60
Education	6,485	79,079	8.20

*/ Career fields include agriculture-home economics, business, office-clerical, computer, education, vocational (technical, health, public service, professional [unspecified]). The arts and sciences include humanities and arts, physics, math, and biology.

The effect of nonwhite test scores on population means is minimal for both verbal and math SAT scores among seniors in various fields, and explains little of the declining qualities observed among the professions in general. In the case of education majors, the removal of nonwhite scores has a net positive effect of 8.7 points on the SAT-M and 7.7 points on the SAT-V scores -- in both cases less than one-tenth of a standard deviation.

My findings are consistent with those of the Wirtz Commission (College Entrance Examination Board, 1977), which found that since 1973 students have tended to shift to occupational or career majors. Those in the career group have "consistently and markedly lower average scores on the SAT (verbal and mathematics sections alike) than do those indicating the arts and sciences choice" (p. 19). Furthermore, within the career-oriented fields, those suffering the greatest market weakness also show the largest score declines. My own research confirms that most of the GRE national score decline took place prior to 1970, yet the career-oriented fields, including education, continued to decline significantly.

Moreover, recent SAT scores show some "inflationary" effect. The Wirtz Commission found that while the predictive validity of the SAT mathematics and verbal scores increased between 1970 and 1974 regarding subsequent college performances, between 1963 and 1973 versions of the SAT tests show an "upward drift" of eight to 12 points. "This means that the declines in the ability the SAT measures have been from eight to 12 points larger than the recorded and reported scores indicate" (p. 9) -- a dismal prospect, given the teacher test scores my research has indicated.

There is empirical evidence confirming the logically presumed relationship between the language ability of the teacher and that of the student. The major source of salient data is the study of James S. Coleman, et al. (1966), which initially established positive, significant correlations between teachers' verbal ability and measures of verbal achievement of their students in elementary and high school. The relationship strengthened at higher grade levels: 0.34 percent of variance explained at grade one compared with 7.06 percent at grade 12. Eric Hanuchek (1970) re-analyzed the Coleman data for the Great Lakes and Northeast regions. His data also show significant correlations between teacher and student verbal scores, net the effects of family background. Samuel Bowles and Henry Levin (1969) re-analyzed the Coleman data and reconfirmed the relationship between teacher and student verbal scores. Specifically, Bowles and Levin show teacher verbal ability to be significantly related to the reading

achievement and general academic ability of twelfth-grade black students. The findings also held for white students, although significance levels are lower. James Guthrie and his coauthors (1971) state the significance of these findings on verbal ability:

> The findings can be construed to mean that an intellectually facile instructor is more adept at tasks such as finding means to motivate students, adapting materials to their ability levels, and communicating in ways that make the subject matter more understandable. This is an interpretation that is totally consistent with observation and conventional wisdom (pp. 70-71).

Theoretical Assumptions

The general assumptions that guide my research, and that I believe are supported in these data, may be summarized as follows: As market demand for new graduates in any given field declines, not only will the quantity of potential students decline, but also the quality of the applicant pool prepared to enter that field of study. The key to this argument has been my assumption that institutions of higher education will adapt to decline by selecting the best from a shrinking pool of talent. However, in so doing they will sacrifice absolute for relative standards. Some fraction of those potential students who would ordinarily enter the field choose not to do so, exercising an option to enter other fields and leaving behind both those who choose to remain and those who have no choice. Student options are constrained by the minimum level of ability required for entry into various fields of study and into various institutions. For example, a student whose combined SAT score exceeds 1200 will have more options than a student whose combined score falls below 800. Indeed, my analyses of the NLS data on transfers from field to field for the class of 1976 show that the largest number of transfers between freshman and senior years occurred among students in highest-ability fields. In short, falling applications and declining test scores, combined with an increase in the ratio of acceptances, will produce a decrease in mean test scores among entering students. This decrease is both relative to other fields not in decline and relative to the general test score decline. The principle holds true for both graduate and undergraduate programs and, insofar as I can determine, is passed through to graduation.

This principle, aptly put by Myron Liberman as "Show me the college that would prefer no students to poor students," is the mirror image of James E. McClellan's (1968) definition of the education system:

> . . . It is that part of the total educational enterprise of the society which automatically receives more students, or better students, or longer control over students, or some combination of the above, whenever a decision is made to upgrade educational requirements anywhere in the nation's economy.

What McClellan did not say, but what follows logically, is that the system is also defined as that part of the total enterprise that will receive fewer students, or poorer-quality students, or shorter control over students, or some combination of those whenever a decision is made to downgrade educational requirements anywhere in the nation's economy, including the educational system itself.

The declining test scores of new teacher graduates appear to be, to a large extent, the legacy of the collapsing job market for educators. Since 1970 the public schools have generally been over-supplied with new teacher graduates and, since the mid-1970s, have been oversupplied in every specialty. Fewer than one-half of the new teacher graduates are being placed in teaching jobs. Depending upon what assumptions one uses, the teacher surplus from 1969 to 1975 approaches half a million. The graduates who do not find teaching jobs show higher rates of unemployment and under-employment than graduates as a whole. As a result, fewer students are majoring in education and among those who do, test scores are significantly lower. The better students are migrating to growth fields.

The education surplus and the decline in academic quality in the field are by-products of a lag in adjustment by preparing institutions to the well-known decline in birthrate and school enrollments. Analysis of the data reveals a distinct mode of adaptation to the drying up of demand among institutions preparing teachers. The mode of adaptation is so widespread as to be considered universal.

1. As applicants dwindled, a higher percentage were admitted.

2. Since the quality of the applicant pool was falling and admissions gates were being opened up, the net result was a significant drop in the basic academic skills of education majors.

3. The forces driving this condition do not abate in the short term; indeed, they worsen. Enrollment will continue to decline at the elementary level until 1983 and well beyond that at the high school level.

At the same time, the production of new teachers, while falling annually since the early 1970s, still remains ahead of demand, and is projected by the National Center for Education Statistics to remain well in excess of demand for several years. (Table 1)

For the moment, graduate enrollments have made up for some of the losses of undergraduates. But the prospects for long-term demand at the graduate level are likely to dim for precisely the same reasons the demand arose in the first place: a severe oversupply of new educators. As the oversupply of new graduates produced acute competition for jobs, particularly in the non-classroom positions, the demand swelled for more credentials. It is reasonable to assume that as the oversupply condition recedes, the competition will lessen and demand from the traditional source of graduate students will begin to decline. In addition, that group of young teachers who would ordinarily be replacing older teachers in school districts, and for whom graduate school provides an economic and career incentive, is no longer being hired. Faculties are increasingly made up of older tenured teachers for whom additional graduate work holds little economic incentive.

Mission of SCDEs

It is absolutely necessary to open up realistic new career options in education in order to attract talented persons to the field. Therefore, the strategy for change must be to relieve the constraint on preparing institutions that has caused an almost total dependence on the public schools. That the mission of schools, colleges, and departments of education needs to be broadened is an objective apart from the declining enrollment issue. The need for a broadened mission is simply magnified by the finding that SCDEs are forced to shrink whenever there is a decrease in employment in the public schools. The broadened mission would recognize the learning needs in business, industry, government, medicine and mental health, and the military. The strategy I am suggesting is not to abandon responsibility to the public schools but to balance the tendency to focus on that limited sphere of educational activities as the whole of education.

While the demand for school teachers and faculties of education has declined, the overall demand for learning in this society has vastly expanded. Without question, the demand for human resource educators is growing and will continue to grow. The only open question is whether SCDEs are going to be relevant to that growth. Ironically, one of the reasons for growth in demand for human resource educators is the failure of the

Table 1

Supply/Demand for Additional Teachers, 1967-1986

	Estimated Supply of New Teacher Graduates[1]	Estimated Total Demand for Additional Teachers[2]	Supply of New Teachers as a Percentage of Total Demand
1967	220,000	223,000	98.7
1968	233,000	243,000	95.9
1969	264,000	250,000	105.6
1970	284,000	221,000	128.5
1971	314,000	184,000	170.7
1972	317,000	182,000	174.2
1973	313,000	178,000	175.8
1974	279,000	170,000	164.1
1975	238,000	181,000	131.5
1976	223,000	146,000	152.7
	Projection		
1977	231,000	134,000	172.4
1978	221,000	128,000	172.7
1979	224,000	121,000	185.1
1980	222,000	117,000	189.7
1981	218,000	129,000	169.0
1982	214,000	135,000	158.5
1983	208,000	145,000	143.4
1984	203,000	167,000	121.6
1985	196,000	181,000	108.3
1986	187,000	188,000	99.5

Source: NCES, Projectors of Education Statistics to 1986-87, Table 21, p. 64

[1]Includes education majors and other graduates eligible for teacher certification.

[2]Includes public and regular non-public schools.

public schools to teach basic skills to an embarrassingly large percentage of American youth prior to their entry into the work force or military. Another reason for optimism is the inevitable fact of a labor force growing older, and a contraction of the flow of replacements beginning in the mid-1980s. Given these conditions, the need for job-related training and retraining is likely to increase.

It also seems apparent that a declining reserve pool of youth will produce in the 1980s and 1990s an even stronger incentive than at present for mature women to enter the work force. The female sector of the work force is now predominantly drawn from among the formally educated. The learning needs of less educated women being drawn into the labor force for the first time, and the needs of their employers, will increase in the coming decade. The further integration of handicapped persons and disadvantaged minority group members into the labor force will constitute major educational problems to be resolved in the 1980s and 1990s.

There are a number of examples of professional preparation, training, and research needs in the "non-school" educational sector. Included would be efforts in the following areas: basic skills training for women entering the work force for the first time; educational programs in adaptive and corrective therapy, mental health, criminal justice and human services, and gerontology; vocational counseling in industry; basic skills and professional training for the military. There are other examples, but I mention these to give a sense of the direction I am suggesting for schools, colleges, and departments of education.

From a policy perspective, it seems abundantly clear that any major movement toward an expanded mission for SCDEs will be restricted by their common organizational motif. Most SCDEs are organized around the needs and structure of the public schools and therefore are poorly suited to a broader mission. The faculty and support systems needed to broaden the mission will require combining faculty skills across departments and university-wide. Educational preparation programs will need to identify generic, functional specializations, such as needs assessment, problem solving, evaluation research, and instructional planning that includes but transcends specializations traditionally defined by public school reference groups.

In order to undertake such a major reorganizational effort, SCDEs will require Federal assistance. I therefore support a Federal policy to

provide assistance to schools of education for the development of alternative career programs.

It seems the height of irony to speak of inadequate educational resources in a country where colleges and universities are producing a hundred thousand surplus educators annually. There are teachers who teach no one while formal learning is rationed for millions. Furthermore, about 10,000 of these new would-be teachers are not only closed out of teaching jobs but are totally unused by any sector of the labor market for a year or more after graduation.

In order to capture the wasted talents of educators and revitalize the field, while at the same time attacking the serious educational deficiencies that do exist in this country -- and those that will threaten national productivity in the coming decade -- we need to rethink national policy in the preparation of educators.

One important step in this direction is the passage of the Schools of Education Assistance Act, as discussed by David Imig and Emily Feistritzer in their chapter. This new mandate under Title V of the Higher Education Act provides funds for model projects in preservice and inservice education and the retraining of SCDE faculty members. With this federal support for their efforts, SCDEs have the potential to redirect their mission and to respond to new educational markets. (See Appendix for text of the Act.)

In conclusion, it is my view that by far the most serious long term threat posed to the development of an educational profession by the effect of declining resources is injury to the process of selecting the most talented members of each cohort for roles as leaders in research, administration, and teaching. We must devise a system that attracts the most talented people we can find into education at a time when rewards are at a low premium. The solution, as I see it, is to broaden what is meant by the term, "educator." Talented students must see that they have career options in education or we simply will lose them to other fields. I am optimistic that we can create challenging and rewarding options for educators both in public schools and outside.

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THE EDUCATIONAL NEEDS OF BUSINESS AND INDUSTRY

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Introduction

While the current educational rhetoric has mainly been concerned with educational processes, schools, colleges, and departments of education (SCDEs) have traditionally chosen to apply these processes in the public schools to the exclusion of other settings. The primary purpose of this chapter is to examine the broader role of SCDEs for more adequately serving educational needs in alternative settings, specifically business and industry.

Schools, colleges, and departments of education should concern themselves with educational processes in a wide range of settings: school, home, community, and work place. This expanded mission would typically require that SCDEs restate their purpose and realign their goals; explore new applications of existing technology; develop new technology; and reorient such activities as research, development, and logistics. Additionally, it would emphasize new recruitment methods for faculty members and students, revised planning cycles, and modified reference groups. As this chapter shows, SCDE involvement in business-sponsored educational activities is a legitimate and necessary endeavor.

Status of Business and Industry-Sponsored Training

To better grasp the needs and opportunities in this enlarged context, it would be helpful to sketch out in broad terms the magnitude, diversity, and complexity of modern business and industry-sponsored training and education. These activities, which are becoming known as human resource development (HRD), are evolving as significant and essential components of modern business. As a generic descriptor of the many concepts and programs surrounding training and education, HRD is defined today as a "(1) series of organized activities, (2) conducted within a specified time and (3) designed to produce behavioral change" (Nadler, 1970, p. 3). Job enrichment, employee motivation, management training, evaluation, career planning, and an overall concern for the working climate and conditions -- safety and health -- are becoming significantly important activities under human resource development (Cooper, 1979).

There are some distinctions which should be made between training and education. Training is specific, goal oriented, and related directly to performance on the job, while education typically is more broadly defined and is concerned with the development of the total individual (This and Lippitt, 1979). Glaser distinguishes the two terms by characterizing training as a minimizer of educational differences, while education maximizes them (1965, p. 4). Currently, because of the need for direct applications to the work situation, training to enhance employer and business growth is receiving greater emphasis. In 1977, AT&T reported in a study conducted by their Human Resources Development Department that 83 percent of the Fortune 500 companies do not pay for courses which are not "job related" (ASTD, 1977). Current trends indicate a growing concern for weaving the two concepts together. Many HRD specialists support this approach as a key factor in organizational success (Blade and Mouton, 1979).

The emergence of a new "work ethic," a decl[illegible] in growth and productivity, increased technological requirements and personnel costs, and many other organizational demands have made profit margins more dependent on training and development. Alexander Braun (1979), director of Technical Training and Certification with the San Francisco Bay Area Rapid Transit District, states three principal reasons why organizations choose to invest in HRD:

1. To adjust to personnel growth and turnover,

2. To prepare employees for promotions or newly created jobs brought on by technological change, governmental laws or managerial policies, and

3. To increase the ability and qualifications of employees to perform more effectively.

Extensive information on employee education and training efforts in business and industry is extremely difficult to collect and summarize. At present, private industry is not required to report the nature and extent of its employee education and training; there is little motivation to do so. Hence, there is no national data base on business and industrial training expenditures and numbers served.

Industrial training is typically characterized by program elements such as cost, numbers served, and total hours of manpower expended because these are the most tangible methods of description. Estimates of nationwide industrial training expenditures and other program

features exhibit inconsistencies on the magnitude, frequency, and diversity of training efforts. The benefits of training and educational programs -- increasing and positively influencing worker productivity, contributing to corporate competitiveness, improving the quality of the work life and promotability, and employee retention -- are essential factors in interpreting training and educational costs. Unfortunately, these data and analyses are even more elusive.

The Hope Report Perspective, a bi-monthly newsletter published by a private market research firm, characterizes industrial training as "one of the biggest businesses in the U.S.," and estimates that close to $20 billion was spent in 1976 by industry and government to train 21 million employees (1978).

Specifically, there are a few national corporations which have published some data on their yearly training budgets. The worldwide AVIS Organization spends about $2.5 million each year on training, including approximately $250,000 a year on support materials. AVIS trains all its employees at least once a year, normally logging about 300,000 student hours annually.

In June 1979, a representative of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company testified before the U.S. Senate Committee on Labor and Human Resources that the corporation's annual training budget is in excess of one billion dollars (Clark, 1979). Change Magazine labeled the AT&T training program as "one of the most sophisticated and extensive educational networks in the nation" (ASTD, 1978). AT&T trains between 15,000 and 20,000 new people a week, or nearly 825,000 people in a one to two-year period. This is equal to nearly two and a half million student days of training per year.

What kinds of costs are incurred under this billion dollar budget? One hundred million dollars a year is spent on the development of training curricula, including the development of new and revised curricula. Another $100 million is used on "various training support functions such as research in learning and training, development of cost-effective methods for conducting training, and general management and control of the training function" (ASTD, 1978). However, the major costs associated with the "delivery of training," including student and instructor salaries, training facilities, and other similar costs all come under the remaining $800 million. Opportunities in higher education through tuition aid, in addition to company-sponsored degree programs in affiliation with certain institutions, are also included in this figure. The average training

experience at AT&T is between three and five days, but the range is from one hour to several months. Salaries of trainees, or costs per participant, average over $2,000 every two years.

What kinds of educational skills and technologies are utilized at AT&T employee education? Most of the Bell System's training "is not done in classrooms, but in individualized, self-paced learning situations." "A wide range of instructional technology is utilized to present the training in the most convenient, and cost-effective" manner possible. Even though most of the Bell System's training is researched, designed, developed, and administered by Bell employees, consultants and contractors, specializing in educational technology, are sometimes called in. Like many colleges and universities, the Bell System administers many specialized programs of study which are all of a technical and job-related nature. However, unlike most colleges and universities, curricula are revised and/replaced on a continuous basis, leading to the disproportionately high cost of educational research and development.

Sophistication and high cost characterize much of modern business training and education. In the opinion of one author, colleges suffer by comparison. "More recently the largest advances in the application of programmed instruction and auto-instructional methods have been in industry rather than on the college campuses" (Rummler, 1963). Larger organizations tend to have the resources and motivation for developing and operating extensive and sophisticated training and development programs, while smaller firms and college campuses do not. Business and industrial training efforts are most concerned with performance outcomes and learner time as key variables. Therefore, these programs place greater emphasis on effectiveness and efficiency in the learning process.

The greatest opportunities and challenges for SCDEs may very well be assisting in the development of training and educational programs for the nation's 10.2 million smaller business organizations. According to a recent article in U.S. News and World Report (1979), these businesses produce 43 percent of the nation's output, employ 58 percent of all private, non-farm workers, and comprise nearly 97 percent of all non-farm businesses.

The Future of Business and Industrial Educational Programs

The rapidly increasing demand for the application of educational processes within business and industry is evident in projected labor market statistics for the 1980s.

1. Induction training for 26 million people will be required simply to get new persons onto the job to replace those leaving the labor force.

2. The training of six million new skilled craftsmen to replace those retiring as well as training present people in new crafts will have to be done.

3. Upgrading of an additional three to four million managerial people will face us. One report states that 40 percent of the present managers will be replaced during this decade and another 20 percent will move into lateral positions requiring new skills. The average age of company presidents is 59. The average age of their assistants is slightly higher. (Odiorne, 1979)

In addition, business and industry are expected to help alleviate the youth unemployment problem and to meet affirmative action requirements. These efforts require increased emphasis on educational programs.

The combination of these labor market statistics and heightened expectations indicates a growing and durable "educational market" in the world of work which should be of a paramount concern to SCDEs.

Professional Development for Industry-Based Educators

At the present time, we do not know the background and formal preparation of individuals occupying positions as directors of training. From our limited knowledge, it appears that many of them have moved into their positions through an eclectic program which builds on an earlier degree in engineering, business, administration, personnel, management, or occasionally education. Their diverse experiences draw on knowledge and skills from education, psychology, industrial relations, and sociology. Few of them have directly pursued the position of training director in industry as a career objective. There is an urgent need to develop a preparation program for personnel who direct and participate in industry-sponsored human resource development programs. Such a program could fuse the various disciplines into a coherent whole.

Presently, there are several disciplines cutting across many university and college campuses which are now preparing to negotiate for a

10. Deciding whether to use an existing program, purchase an external program, or create a new one to satisfy needs

11. Revising materials/programs based on evaluative feedback

Delivering Training and Development Programs/Services

12. Conducting training programs

13. Using discussion techniques

14. Using lecture techniques

Advising and Counseling

15. Counseling with managers and supervisors on training and development

16. Organizing and staffing the training and development function or department

Maintaining Organizational Relationships

17. Establishing and maintaining good working relationships with managers as clients

18. Explaining recommendations to gain acceptance for them

19. Making formal management presentations of plans for training and development programs and projects

Doing Research to Advance the Training Field

(No frequent activities)

Developing Professional Skills and Expertise

20. Keeping abreast of training and development activities in other organizations

role in HRD education (Cooper, 1979). These formal HRD academic programs will be increasingly popular in the future. Several universities have already attempted to create new programmatic departments, under such titles as labor and human resources, to prepare young people directly for leadership and support roles in this area. The skills required of an HRD specialist evidence a need for theoretical knowledge emanating from several disciplines, including education.

Skills Needed by Educators in Industry

According to research efforts of the American Society for Trainers and Developers (Pinto and Walker, 1978), the following 21 most frequent activities of a training and development professional fall under nine categories:

Analyzing Needs and Evaluating Results

1. Projecting future training needs relating to management secession, organizational change, etc.
2. Evaluating training and development needs to set program priorities

Designing and Developing Training Programs

3. Establishing behavioral or learning objectives for programs
4. Designing programs to satisfy specific needs
5. Determining program content
6. Applying adult learning theory and instructional principles in developing programs
7. Evaluating alternative instructional methods (e.g., video, role play, demonstrations, etc.)
8. Developing training materials (e.g., workbooks, exercises, cases)
9. Determining program structure (length, number of participants, choice of techniques, etc.)

21. Keeping abreast of training and development concepts, theory, techniques, and approaches

Developing Basic Skills and Knowledge

(No frequent activities)

An analysis of the foregoing competencies indicates that education as an applied discipline has much to offer industrial training efforts. Among the methods which have proven effective in industrial training are lecture-discussion, role playing, case method, management games, programmed instruction, the incident process (Odiorne, 1979), simulation, and computer-assisted instruction. While all of these methods are known to educators, they have been exploited more frequently in the industrial setting. While the additional resources of modern industry may be responsible, it also seems that industry has actually leap-frogged education as an applied discipline. In formulating its training efforts, industry has gone directly to learning theorists, systems engineers, industrial sociologists, and other experts for support.

Despite the diverse and rich contributions, all is not perfect within the industrial training world. Wilford G. Miles, a dean and assistant professor of management, School of Business Administration at the University of Arkansas, and William D. Biggs, an associate professor of management, School of Business Administration at Alfred University, have identified six recurring errors that account for many HRD failures (1979):

1. Failure to tie development programs to long term and/or strategy consideration
2. Failure to qualify participants properly
3. Failure to use proper training methods
4. Failure to differentiate group and individual development
5. Failure to provide post-training support
6. Failure to evaluate results

Strategies for SCDEs

If SCDEs accept this challenge, the pivotal consideration is the degree to which the faculty and administration support, as part of the

organizational mission, work with the business and industrial sector. Do they perceive it as appropriate, desirable, and beneficial that they apply their scholarship and expertise to various educational processes within the business and industrial setting? If the application of educational technology to new settings is perceived as positive, the following strategies could facilitate new directions in meeting business and industrial educational needs.

Consideration should be given to:

1. Assembling a more powerful data base concerning the status of industry-sponsored training and staff development programs: their characteristics, their successes, and the need for additional investigation and evaluation

2. Stimulating research and development projects that use industrial settings as their locus

3. Providing appropriate incentives and rewards to faculty members for working in alternative settings, such as research grants for investigations in business and industry-based settings and sabbaticals to be spent in business and industry

4. Soliciting financial support from governmental and business sources to seed activities in this area

5. Developing joint degree programs with other university groups, such as colleges of engineering, behavioral sciences, and administrative sciences

6. Providing graduate student internships in industrial educational settings to give students experience in applying the technology of their graduate program to this setting

7. Deliberately recruiting individuals into graduate programs who have professional experience and commitments to industry-based training

8. Hiring HRD directors as faculty members to be responsible for linking the SCDE with business and industrial training programs, exploiting the technology of education in

that setting, and providing feedback to faculty members about its evolving educational requirements

9. Initiating staff exchanges between faculty members and industry-based trainers

10. Developing joint agreements among SCDEs, industry trade associations, and chambers of commerce to develop and provide more useful programs and services

11. Forming consortia of small businesses to assist them in developing and providing more adequate and cost effective employee training programs. These consortia could facilitate planning and programming, stimulate demand for the services of the SCDE, and provide avenues for increased interaction and reciprocal benefits.

12. Designating several departments or faculty groups as leaders in establishing effective working relationships with educational programs in business and industry. Prime candidates would be departments of adult education, vocational education, and educational technology.

13. Tying into university-wide programs of continuing education which already have mechanisms for reaching out and recruiting individuals from business and industrial settings not normally served by SCDEs. Through continuing education courses, SCDEs could be responsive to the needs of this new clientele and would provide an additional means of improving linkages.

14. Fostering general faculty development programs designed to assure faculty awareness of the emerging needs and trends in business and industry-sponsored educational programs. These programs would provide SCDE personnel with a better sense of how their areas of scholarship and teaching could be applied to these settings. This effort might be accomplished through visitation programs, joint seminars, and use of resource personnel.

Summary

If colleges of education do not redirect themselves to the wider range of educational settings, then they truly should accept the narrower

label of "colleges of schooling." There is obviously a persistent and expanding need for educational services in business and industry. Further, there is every reason to believe that there are reciprocal needs and benefits between SCDEs and employer-sponsored training and educational programs. The advantages of moving aggressively in this area should spur the leadership of schools, colleges, and departments of education to examine their opportunities and responsibilities.

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THE URBAN AGENDA AND ITS IMPLICATIONS FOR SCHOOLS OF EDUCATION

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Introduction*/

It is estimated that the 50 largest school districts, both urban and metropolitan, serve approximately one in six of all public elementary and secondary school students in the United States. In addition, including dropouts and students in parochial and other private schools, these districts represent almost 25 percent of all students. Adding the students in the suburban districts of the associated metropolitan areas makes the count of students in the areas served by urban schools, colleges, and departments of education (USCDEs) rise even more dramatically.

In this chapter I focus on the complex and comprehensive "Urban Agenda." The implications of this agenda for USCDEs are discussed in the context of shifting realities, possibilities for action, and recommendations for Federal policy.

In the decade ahead, the role and functions of USCDEs will undergo some dramatic transformations. For some USCDEs these transformations will simply be an extension of evolutionary processes already initiated in the past decade. For other institutions, the transformations will raise serious questions about survival.

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*/ Many of the issues discussed in this paper were developed at the fourth national conference of the National Association for Urban Education, held in Philadelphia in November, 1979 with the cooperation of Research for Better Schools, Temple University, and the New Jersey Department of Education.

Three publications provide an interpretation of the material presented at that conference: Urban Schools in Urban Systems: Selected Papers, edited by Gary Gappert; Program Abstracts, An Overview of Research and Practice in Urban Education, prepared by Gary Gappert and JoAnn Weinberger; and The Prospects For Progress and Partnerships in Urban Education, by Gary Gappert. They are available from Research for Better Schools, 444 N. 3rd Street, Philadelphia, Pa. 19123.

Discovering the Urban Agenda

As urban education moves into the 1980s, a backward glance reveals the concerns of the two past decades: desegregation, decentralization, community representation, economic flight, the emergence of minority leadership, the development of substantial bilingual populations, and many others. The question for the 1980s is: Will these issues continue to dominate urban education or will different concerns and opportunities emerge in this decade? A critical issue for the 1980s is whether the improvement of urban education will be integral to urban revitalization, or only a secondary factor which is shaped by other circumstances.

One leading urban educator, Bernard Watson (1979), believes that urban education is in a state of flux because we have yet to define the social, economic, and political forces that impinge upon it. He attributes this failure to historical factors. To begin with, educators are only beginning to eradicate the long-held myth that education is apolitical. Because they have believed that myth, educators have failed to address their critics who seem to expect the educational system to resolve all the social problems of the cities.

Instead of apologizing for their failures, Watson suggests that educators take the offensive: They should point out that they have done a better job than anyone else, and that the responsibility for solving these problems lies with the critics as well as with the educators. Educators are responsible, according to Watson, for communicating the difficulties of their mandate, for following up and developing processes that have worked in the past, and for eliciting the support (both psychological and fiscal) of the members of the communities and institutions that provide the context for their professional activities.

Watson places particular emphasis on the need to develop lines of communication between schools and the home community of the student. Citing cultural and structural changes in American society, he demonstrates that children and adults are becoming increasingly segregated from one another -- a structural feature that is reinforced by the schools. This "compartmentalization on secular dimensions" creates a dangerous situation in which youth are becoming part of a permanent uneducated, unemployed, and unskilled "underclass." Unless educators, parents, and other community members begin to work together to break down the structural barriers between themselves and the children they are charged with socializing, this situation may lead to further alienation and ultimate disaster.

Another distinguished urban educator, Frances S. Chase (1978), has been engaged in a systematic review of innovative urban programs for the Council of Great City Schools. These studies were initiated in the spring of 1977 with support from the Spencer Foundation. Thirty large city school districts provided data on a total of almost 600 programs in four designated areas: Action-Learning, Basic Skills, Cultural Pluralism and School/Community Interaction. Some encouraging developments emerge from the successful programs:

1. Urban education has an inner vitality which is generating innovative programs and strategies of great potential, even in the midst of extremely adverse conditions.

2. There is a deepening concern for the needs not well served by traditional schooling. Fewer educators and board members now attribute low achievement to inherent disabilities, lack of effort, or poverty of parents; more leaders are improving their expectations for students formerly regarded as slow learners.

3. An increasing number of community agencies and groups are cooperating with schools to develop enriched environments for learning. The recruitment of citizen volunteers and parents to serve as counselors, resource persons, and tutors is gaining momentum.

4. The conditions essential to the success of magnet schools and other options are beginning to be better understood; progress is being made toward creation of the essential conditions. Systematic curricular development and modification are proceeding, with improved provisions for initial and continuing staff development.

5. Federal intervention -- through grants and contracts, equal opportunity requirements, and court decrees -- has either triggered or expedited a high proportion of the innovations which urban districts rate as unusually successful.

6. Local and situational factors -- including program leadership, staff and district commitment, and effectiveness of implementation -- are crucial to program success.

7. Continuous program evaluation, adaptation to revealed student needs, and staff development are essential to continuing program success and local support.

8. Many successful programs represent significant departures from traditional schooling through emphasis on student choice and responsibility, experience-based education, and greater use of resources outside of the school.

These findings indicate that progress in urban education is possible and is proceeding. However, partnerships are desirable, if not essential, and USCDEs need to serve as catalysts for these collaborative ventures.

Another perspective is offered by LaMar Miller (1979), executive director of the Metropolitan Center for Education Research and Development at New York University, who asserts that the goal of urban education is to reclaim the youths who have been lost. Recognizing that there are economic, social, and political reasons for these losses, Miller calls for a change in focus from the "campus to the community." This shift requires a change in focus from preservice to inservice teacher training. Teachers, Miller finds, are generally isolated from their students' home communities. Miller proposes the development of inservice programs with both parental involvement and administrator participation.

Each of these three perspectives indicates that urban school improvement and development must take into account particular school-community circumstances and sites. Generalizations originating from the urban campus must grow out of clinical, site-specific professional interventions or innovations.

At a time when several of the largest urban school districts are facing either fiscal collapse or the continuing conflicts associated with mandatory desegregation, we must take a longer term view of the prospects for urban education. Beyond the current crises, the USCDEs need to provide visionary leadership, through research, planning, and evaluation, to support the more enduring positive trends in urban education.

Planning Heuristics for Urban Education

There are at least five general ways to view urban education as it evolves through the turbulence of the next decade.

First, the urban school and the urban district must be viewed as an integral part of other systems. The tendency of educational researchers and administrators to see educational systems as primarily, if not fully, autonomous does not hold true for urban education. Instead, an ecological perspective must be developed which considers the urban school as embedded in other urban systems -- economic, political, and social. Such a perspective was proposed by Frank Spikes (1977) in a paper presented at the Third National Conference on Urban Education. Such factors as demographic growth, economic growth, and political change can be considered as variables which interact with the educational system. By projecting different values for such variables, alternative futures can be forecast.

A second general conclusion is that both urban schools and educational policy and research have survived, barely, the "six traumas" of the last decade. These traumas included: (1) the loss of population, wealth, and jobs in urban areas; (2) the absorption by urban systems of new minority and high-need populations; (3) the imposition of court-ordered desegregation plans; (4) the emergence of test scores as political indicators of school performance; (5) the development of systems of "multi-pocket budgeting" to absorb complex and diverse funding available through new Federal and state programs; and (6) the problems associated with budget making in a time of declining resources. These phenomena have created an almost unprecedented need for Federal, state, and municipal support for the management of the external and internal relationships of urban school systems.

The current crises in Chicago, Cleveland, New York City, Boston, Trenton, etc., have all led to state interventions of some sort. Presently the success or effectiveness of these interventions remain questionable. In any case, state government is no longer indifferent to its constitutional responsibilities with respect to its largest school systems (Metis Associates, 1978). The 1980s will see this state role of intervention expanding.

This fact is the basis for the third general conclusion: The effective management of urban school systems in support of student learning and development should be viewed as a primary issue for American domestic policy in the early years of the 1980s. With the commitment of ESEA Title I funds as the principal Federal component of support to urban schools, attention should be paid to supporting the successful and effective implementation of Federal intent in cities which receive a significant amount of

those funds. There are approximately 60 urban school systems which receive at least $3 million a year in Title I funds. Now that Title I has been validated through its Congressional reauthorization, it is timely to determine what sorts of technical assistance should be forthcoming to expand its educational effectiveness in our largest cities.

In a more profound way, all funds flowing into the large urban systems must be held to new standards of productivity and accountability. This trend is supported by emphasis upon the identification of unusually effective, and ineffective, schools. These so-called outlier studies help to identify the unusual efforts associated with a high performance school, regardless of social-economic status. (Brookover, 1977) These characteristics are then used to guide new school improvement efforts such as that developed by Ron Edmonds in New York City (1978). Five factors have been identified by Edmonds which foster school improvement: (1) administrative style, encompassing instructional and administrative leadership, (2) school-wide basic skills emphasis, (3) a school climate conducive to learning, (4) optimistic teacher expectations, and (5) on-going assessment of pupil progress.

A fourth general observation is that there has been little consensus about the development of priorities for the revitalization of urban education as a component of urban policy. There is a need for constructive policies to counteract the critics who view urban education as a series of deficits.

Some believe that the problem is primarily a learning problem of disadvantaged students, who have certain language and experiential deficits associated with poverty and other socio-economic conditions. Others blame the inadequacy of the instructional system -- unsatisfactory preservice and inservice experiences of the urban teacher, or lack of adequate and appropriate curricular materials. A third group focuses on the general inadequacy of the fiscal resources to support education. Urban district budgets must make additional provision for security, counseling, nutrition, absenteeism, health, and other non-instructional concerns. In addition, needed capital funds for building renovation and new construction have not, in many cases, been forthcoming.

A fourth characterization of the problem of urban education involves the management deficit of urban districts. Given the size (number of schools), complexity (diverse population), and socio-economic stress (unemployment, health problems) of urban districts, many districts are under-managed by the traditional provisions of educational administration.

The overlapping characterizations of the problems of urban schools are not necessarily in conflict. Taken together they describe the complex reality of urban education systems. What may be in conflict are the potential treatments for these varying diagnoses. People of different professional orientations have argued for the primacy of one "micro" treatment over another as the most effective way to change aspects of the "macro" reality. For this reason, a priority agreement on constructive action and policies has not been forthcoming. USCDEs could assist particular urban communities in developing an action agenda based on local needs and the systematic development of priorities.

A fifth general observation is that the prospects for a new wave of urban reform and revitalization have never been brighter. There is some indication that the emerging markets of the 1980s may be favorable to some urban areas. Syndicated colunist Neal Peirce, writing recently in The Nation's Cities, said, "The inner cities of America are poised for a stunning comeback, a turnabout in their fortunes that could be one of the most significant developments in our national history."

The reasons, says Peirce, are partly economic, partly demographic, and partly changing life styles. The ingredients include: (1) accelerating return of the middle class to the cities, (2) the energy crisis and the rising costs of commuting, (3) the explosion of the post-World War II baby boom into the new household market, (4) changing life styles and growing dissatisfaction with suburban life, expecially among young people, (5) skyrocketing single family home costs, (6) economies of restoration over new construction, (7) shifts in Federal policy away from the "pro-suburb bias of the last three decades," (8) a strong and growing national neighborhood movement, and (9) a pronounced decline in urban crime, all breeding "fresh investment and confidence."

Although Peirce does not mention it, the growing number of women in the work force may be an important factor, too. Having two wage earners in the family does not ease the commuter hassle, but it does increase the demand for conveniences and urban amenities while enhancing the means to fill the demand. Each of these heuristics can be used by an USCDE to pursue new functions and roles in the context of its particular metropolitan environment.

The Shifting Realities of Urban Education

With these heuristic observations in mind, we must note that the next ten years will be different from the last decade. In one sense, the

1970s were marked by "human relations" and with the dramatic turnover of urban districts and schools to minority leadership. (Scott, 1980) At this time, the turning point of the decades, there is an explosion of crises -- both political and financial -- and an explosion of innovations. (Chase, 1978) In the decade ahead, when these crises are resolved, the innovations (masterly learning and other pupil-centered academic achievement programs) will be ready for system-wide implementation.

The successful implementation of systems based on improvement of student performance hinges on two issues. First, is the urban district ready for a system-wide commitment to an improvement in its educational productivity? Second, are the political, social, economic, and cultural systems of the city ready to make student achievement, growth, and development a critical collaborative priority?

As USCDEs review their evolving role in the 1980s, they will have to (1) be conscious of the need to find an appropriate niche in the evolving strategy of particular urban communities. In some cases an USCDE may influence the nature of that strategy, but rarely will it be able to impose one of its own. At the same time, USCDEs will have to (2) decide how multi-dimensional and multi-disciplinary they must become. Given the analyses above, it is clear that the urban educational problem is not primarily a matter of instruction at the classroom level. Urban schools exist within urban systems. The critical problem is to determine how those systems support or retard the operation and delivery of classroom instruction and other forms of educational development. The significant question for USCDEs is: Are they capable of addressing the operation of these other systems? This preparation may require a thorough reorientation and reorganization of these USCDEs. The action agenda which follows suggests some of these new directions.

Implications for Action

The questions which remain are: How do the general observations and the specific trends of the urban agenda translate into an USCDE agenda appropriate to "next September," if not to "next Monday"?

More specific conclusions, focused on actions, about the future of urban education can provide a starting point for inter-institutional planning. These are:

1. A clear and coherent educational mission developed by community consensus is a prerequisite for continuing progress in urban schools.

2. Skills for collaborative planning need to be identified, developed, and strengthened.

3. Incentives for institutional reconstruction should be sought and provided.

4. Promising practices in urban partnerships should be identified and analyzed so that they can be translated into practice elsewhere.

5. Urban schools need to improve communications with their own students, families, and communities.

6. The implementation process in urban environments needs to be studied and analyzed.

7. The use of evaluation and research as management tools should be a top priority in urban schools.

8. The patterns and practices of successful urban staff development activities deserve closer examination.

9. The diffusion and adaptation of model urban programs from one site to another should be assessed as a strategy or tool for progress in urban education.

Besides these local issues, some concerns about Federal policies must also be considered.

Implications for Federal Policy

Traditionally, both Federal educational bureaucracies and national interest groups have resisted a clear cut commitment to urban education, but the equity concerns of Federal policy are resulting in greater involvement.

Two critical questions are: a) Will the new Department of Education identify and support a senior policy official responsible for

coordinating policy and programs with respect to the 50-100 largest urban systems? and b) Will the national educational interest groups be willing to support the development of priorities so that the limited Federal resources go to the areas of greatest need?

The recent influx of experienced urban educators into the higher reaches of the Federal educational policy establishment may or may not help address these needs. Too often urban education is symbolically equated with minority concerns. While that is important, it is even more important to ensure that the "second revolution" in educational governance is followed by an analogous revolution in educational administration (Gappert, 1979) and educational policy. This revolution is associated with the new educational policies of accountability and participation. To further this movement, Federal policy should focus on the mobilization of local efforts and resources. Urban School Development Incentive Grants (USDIGs) are one means of accomplishing this goal.

Urban School Development Incentive Grants (USDIGs)

I propose that forthcoming youth employment legislation, and other related legislation, include a title that provides incentives for collaborative program development and implementation, especially in the 50 largest urban school districts. While many Federal laws attempt to mandate cooperation and consultation through different forms of advisory structures, these efforts often result in only superficial and pro forma compliance.

Incentives must be provided for joint or collaborative program development and implementation which use the best skills and resources from several agencies in each metropolitan area. The experience with the Urban Development Action Grants (UDAG) program at HUD has been very successful in mobilizing local resources, skills, and ideas behind comprehensive and innovative urban development efforts.

In some cases, urban school districts have remained aloof from other municipal development efforts. However, in a few cases, some very effective partnerships have emerged. The Federal youth employment initiative should provide some incentives for more effective and exemplary partnerships. Working cooperatively, agencies and institutions of higher education can develop programs to break down the constraints of structural unemployment for urban youth.

For those urban districts which are troubled by other conflicts and problems, a preliminary step might be an Urban School Management

Improvement Grant (USMIG). The USMIG program would concentrate on (1) inservice training, (2) a management audit and reforms, (3) basic skills and/or (4) interagency planning and evaluation. A key issue is the need to increase the capacity of an urban school district to participate as an effective senior partner in well-integrated youth employment initiatives. While that capacity is beginning to emerge in some cases, the process is often slow. An USDIG program will accelerate capacity development; an USMIG program will contribute to the management improvement of multi-million dollar operations.

Similar collaborative initiatives could be incorporated in other Federal programs. The evaluation efforts of some Title I bureaucrats do not address the needs of larger systems for capacity building. An USDIG program in Title I could provide incentives for higher education to offer technical support to the research and evaluation offices of urban districts. Similarly, an Urban Teacher Improvement Grant (UTIG) might be developed to bring private sector resources into constructive relationships with urban schools.

Conclusions

By 1990, effective USCDEs will be likely to share some of these characteristics: First, their departmental structure will have been reorganized to eliminate low priority functions, to consolidate areas of excellence, and to incorporate more of an external, interventionist capability for staff development.

Second, their on-campus visibility will be oriented to the mobilization of skills and services available in other colleges or departments. For instance, the sociology department might be tapped for its survey research capacity, while the business school might be adapting management systems to the needs of urban principals.

Third, faculty reputation and promotion will be oriented to successful school improvement activities in particular communities or to the development of new, mid-career instructional systems for particular municipal agencies.

Fourth, their research activities will follow from needs discovered in "Executive Academies" or "Think Tank" activities conducted with cooperating school districts.

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FEDERAL INVOLVEMENT IN EDUCATIONAL PERSONNEL DEVELOPMENT*/

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What is the status of educational personnel development at the Federal level? Is it really a priority of the Federal government or does the energy and enthusiasm so evident among special interest groups and federally funded projects having monies available for staff development stop with those groups and those projects? What prospects does a more conservative Reagan administration hold for personnel development?

Background on Federal Policy for Personnel Development

Federal involvement in teacher education goes back to the Smith-Hughes Act (1917) which granted funds to the states for planning vocational education programs and specified that some funding should be allocated for purposes of teacher training. A half century passed before the National Science Foundation, in 1954, attempted to improve course content in college and university preservice teacher education programs in mathematics and science. The Cooperative Research Act, passed the same year, funded educational research activities in institutions of higher education (IHEs) -- most often within schools of education. The National Defense Education Act (NDEA) in 1958 marked a significant further investment in teacher education. NDEA provided loans with important provisions deferring or "forgiving" repayment for students electing to become teachers of science, mathematics, and foreign languages. Subsequent amendments to both NDEA and the Cooperative Research Act provided for teacher institutes and curricular reform activities in English, language arts, and the social sciences as well as for teachers preparing to work with disadvantaged youth.

It is important to recognize that the development of these programs responded to the political realities of the space race, the demographics of the "baby boom," and the ideals of equal educational opportunity by relying upon the personnel development capabilities of schools,

*/ This article is a revision of an article entitled "Current Federal Involvement in Educational Personnel Development" by C. Emily Feistritzer from the 1981 Report on Educational Personnel Development.

colleges, and departments of education (SCDEs). SCDEs were funded to develop prescriptive training or program designs consistent with national goals.

In 1965 the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) significantly shifted Federal policy toward teacher education. For the first time, local education agencies (LEAs) were permitted to use Federal monies to initiate teacher development programs without SCDEs. In addition, in what some consider to have been the most important Federal policy decision relative to schools of education, the Cooperative Research Act was amended to establish educational laboratories to develop and demonstrate educational innovations and to train teachers in their use. Finally, Teacher Corps legislation promoted a teacher-intern model in a school setting. Whereas earlier Federal investments in teacher education had concentrated on building the capacity of SCDEs, these three Federal acts clearly moved teacher training, research, and development out of the historically exclusive domain of higher education.

These pieces of legislation as well as the controversial Education Professions Development Act of 1967 (EPDA) continued the pattern of role erosion for SCDEs as the primary educational training agency. EPDA was expected to consolidate some fifteen discretionary programs for the purposes of program administration and local coordination. Higher education, through the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE), opposed such administrative coordination, since it clearly removed IHEs from direct involvement in federally funded personnel development programs. Teacher renewal sites were to become a local delivery system for the inservice training of teachers. While this effort was curtailed and the Education Amendments of 1976 (P.L. 94-482) repealed EPDA, Federal policy further encouraged site-specific training through the establishment of the Teacher Centers Program. By the end of 1976, the Federal investment in professional preparation was substantial -- over $500 million in grants, contracts, and other awards through some 40 separate Office of Education administered programs -- with still more millions invested through a host of programs outside the Education Division. However, this money was not allocated to SCDEs exclusively but was (and continues to be) shared among three role groups: IHEs, LEAs, and State Education Agencies (SEAs). Federal legislation, either by intent or benign neglect, had cast the current set of actors in the future of teacher education.

Policy Perspectives and Their Implications During the Carter Administration

When the Carter Administration arrived in Washington in 1977, policy analysts and planners were quickly charged with examining past experiences, documenting existing patterns of support, and identifying issues of potential concern to Federal policy makers concerning teacher education. Among those policy concerns identified in the early days of the Carter administration were:

- Whether there should be continued Federal investment in professional development when there were no longer critical teacher shortages
- Whether there should be greater coordination among the various categorical programs with professional development components
- Whether there should be greater local discretion and flexibility in the determination of training designs and patterns
- Whether the Federal government should concentrate its initiatives on school-site/general school improvement or make a significant expansion in the professional development of individual teachers

The role of the National Education Association (NEA) in helping to carry several key states in the election of 1976, and the significant voice of the American Federation of Teachers (AFT) raised this policy debate to the White House. Vice President Mondale involved himself in this policy debate on at least one occasion.

In 1977, then Assistant Secretary for Policy and Evaluation, Michael O'Keefe, proposed four basic directions for Federal intervention in school personnel development:

- Concentrate on the qualitative issues of teaching and learning with the most direct impact upon educational personnel development.
- Focus on programs and projects that will have maximum impact upon children from low-income families.
- Foster the integration of preservice, inservice, and continuing education programs into a coherent and cohesive whole.

- Adopt a "hands-off" position relative to who does teacher education.

Soon after, Marshall Smith, then Assistant Commissioner for Policy Studies, developed a concept paper that called for further coordination of Federal teacher training programs, many with their own delivery systems and governance structures. While Smith cautioned that consolidated programs rarely gain the intensity of support and funding that individual programs do, he recommended the development of state teacher development councils or intermediate delivery centers. Commissioner Ernest Boyer also proceeded to develop a Bureau of School Improvement (BSI) within the U.S. Office of Education (USOE) to coordinate all personnel preparation programs. The internal resistance to BSI presaged the major "turfdom" battles surrounding the creation and organization of the new Federal Department of Education. The resignation of Smith's deputy, Janice Weinman, and Smith's growing preoccupation with other legislative demands signaled a shift in responsibility for professional development.*/

At approximately the same time that O'Keefe and Smith were formulating policy options for personnel development, Boyer established a special task force to examine the involvement of the U.S. Office of Education in educational personnel development and to make recommendations regarding how the Office might improve its role in this very important area of education. Chaired by William L. Smith, then director of the Teacher Corps Program, this effort came to be known as the "National Teacher Development Initiative" (NTDI). Two task forces were established -- one composed of people inside the Federal bureaucracy and the other of people representing the major organizations and special interest groups concerned with educational personnel development. Two major outcomes of the NTDI were: (a) the identification of programs within USOE which had a component for staff development; and (b) a set of recommendations to the Commissioner for Federal involvement in educational personnel development.

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*/ Dr. Weinman had exerted her considerable talents to promote a school administrator training policy paper that served as her vehicle to examine personnel development issues. Her withdrawal from these debates in spring 1979 represented an end to much of the serious consideration of options and alternatives for personnel development by the Office of Education. Her "Professional Development" options paper (dated December 16, 1977) served as an important discussion paper for the community.

In order to prepare a set of legislative recommendations for the pending reauthorization of the Higher Education Act (HEA), the Department of Health, Education and Welfare Secretary, Joseph A. Califano, established several task forces in the spring of 1978. Hearings were conducted by the Administration in January 1978, followed by the appointment of some sixteen working groups. A work group, again chaired by William L. Smith, was set up to make recommendations for Title V (Teacher Corps and Teacher Training) of HEA. At the time Title V consisted of only three programs -- two of which were being funded. The keystone of Title V was Teacher Corps, a vestige of the new New Frontier social programs, which was "protected" by Senators Edward M. Kennedy (D-MA) and Gaylord Nelson (D-WI). Teacher Corps was destined to receive an appropriation of $37.5 million in fiscal year 1979 and of $30 million in fiscal year 1980 to upgrade teachers in ESEA Title I schools. Teacher Centers, originally sponsored by then Senator Walter F. Mondale (D-MN), had been added to Title V in 1976 and received an appropriation of $11 million in FY 1978, of $12.625 million in FY 1979 and of $13 million in FY 1980. The third program for the training of higher education personnel, which was a conglomerate of Senator Alan Cranston's (D-CA) interests in professional education, had never been given an appropriation. These programs constituted the bulk of Federal investments in professional development in 1978.

Recommendations of the Smith work group were, therefore, to (a) reauthorize both the Teacher Corps and Teacher Centers Programs; (b) give serious consideration to coordinating categorical programs having a component for training educational personnel; and (c) introduce legislation for training local educational administrators.

At the same time that the two Office of Education study groups were examining the Federal role in professional development, Congress was completing the reauthorization of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act -- which was to include an important new dimension for personnel development. With the passage of P.L. 95-561 in October 1978, Congress introduced language under Title IV-C and Title V-B requiring states to submit a plan including a description of how they intended to coordinate all staff development efforts in the state. The remnant of an important Basic Skills initiative designed by the Administration, this mandate created quite a stir among both state and Federal bureaucrats. With the loss of much of the Basic Skills legislative package, the authors of the original language quickly lost interest. No one quite knew what the law intended or what had been the specific reason for preserving this language.

In the absence of such information, developing regulations for states to use fell to a group of bureaucrats removed from the substantive issues of professional development; consequently, the regulations which came out in October 1979 were sketchy. Although lobbied by a staff member for the National Council for State Inservice Education (NCSIE), the U.S. Office of Education attempted to enforce the mandate. By default, program administration fell to the Title IV-C office in USOE. A meeting was held in January 1980, with the Title IV-C personnel from USOE and from the states to clarify what was expected in these "state plans." It was a confusing meeting, with state personnel voicing considerable objections. All 50 states and the territories submitted their state plans by the June 30, 1980 deadline, and as of this writing, plans were being reviewed by the national office. There is no clear indication whether the exercise served any real purpose, nor whether any state's Title IV or Title V money will be withheld if its plan is unsatisfactory. Nevertheless, "coordination and planning" were to become important aspects of Congressional efforts to reauthorize Title V.

Staff members for the U.S. House of Representatives Subcommittee on Post-secondary Education seized the initiative in September 1978 by asking the education community to submit legislative recommendations for Title V. Subsequently, they conducted a single day of hearings in the spring of 1979. It was during these public hearings that the National Education Association (NEA) recommended that the Teacher Corps program be abolished and that its funding be allocated to the Teacher Centers. Considerable discussion ensued regarding coordination of those programs, coordination of other programs with an educational development component, and the need for an administrator training program. NEA and AACTE battled over modifications to the Teacher Centers program, with the higher education-based association seeking to force collaborative local planning, design, and administration of the Centers. Proposals were made to forego the ten percent of funding that was "set aside" for higher education in exchange for the requirement that all submissions would be for joint LEA and IHE awards. House Subcommittee staff attempted to resolve these differences at the same time they dealt with the concerns of the National School Board Association (NSBA) regarding the authority of Teacher Center Policy Boards, and a whole host of interest groups that wanted teachers in their specialties designated as members of those policy boards.

What emerged was, at best, a compromise -- but one that had the support of the primary groups in the education community. The House passed its bill for the reauthorization of the Higher Education Act, H.R. 5192, in

September 1979. That bill also included three other important modifications: (a) the repeal of the previous Training of Higher Education Personnel (Sec. 533) and the inclusion of Rep. Ted Weiss's (D-NY) "Schools of Education Assistance Act" (H.R. 3918) as substitute language, (b) the modification of the Teacher Corps program to place new emphasis upon Rep. Shirley Chisholm's (D-NY) interest in biomedical, scientific, and mathematics teacher training, and (c) the inclusion of an abbreviated coordination section (added by Rep. Kenneth Kramer (R-CO) only after it had been stripped of appropriation language), which mandated more Federal initiative in identifying and programming personnel development through a new Federal Office of Education Personnel Development. The scene then shifted across Capitol Hill to the Senate.

The Senate Subcommittee on Education, Arts, and Humanities, chaired by Sen. Claiborne Pell (D-RI), conducted one day of hearings on Title V on October 3, 1979. Only AACTF and AFT appeared before the Committee. The Subcommittee submitted a bill to the Senate Committee on Labor and Human Resources on April 30, 1980, which, in turn, presented Senate Bill S. 1832 to the full Senate for its approval May 15, 1980. The Senate passed the bill on June 24, 1980, and the House and the Senate began markup of H.R. 5192 and S. 1832 on July 22, 1980. The Conference Bill emerged September 25, 1980 and President Carter signed the law on October 3, 1980. As P.L. 96-374 became a reality, some profound changes in Title V took effect.

The inclination of Senate Subcommittee staff members had been to do very little with Title V. They viewed with disbelief the intensity of interest by the groups seeking to make modifications in existing programs or to add new authorizations. Since staff members virtually rejected House modifications contained in H.R. 5192 (particularly the Schools of Education Assistance Act), it became necessary to try having new authorities included in other titles beyond the purview of the Subcommittee staff.

The only new authorization accepted for Title V was a Special Education Teacher Training program that would make training grants available to state education agencies. Senator Jennings Randolph (D-WV) advocated it as the only item he wanted in the entire Education Amendments of 1980, and his colleagues were quick to accommodate him in order to secure his vote for their own programs.

Twice during the Conference, House and Senate conferees examined issues surrounding Title V -- with the bulk of that time devoted to the

Schools of Education Assistance Act. Senate aides asked Senator Richard Schweiker (R-PA) to question why schools of education should be singled out over other professional schools or undergraduate departments for Federal appropriations. Finding few supporters for his position and strong support for the measure from a coalition of House conferees, particularly Reps. Paul Simon (D-IL) and John Brademas (D-IN), Schweiker withdrew his opposition; the Act was included in the final version of the Education Amendments of 1980.

That Act, which had originally been introduced by Senator Harrison Williams (D-NJ) in February 1979, was the first piece of Federal legislation to single out schools, colleges, and departments of education as potential recipient agencies for Federal funds. It also provided modest but significant "capacity development" monies for those institutions to change programs, upgrade faculties, explore collaboration with other SCDEs, etc. Its inclusion in Title V was a significant addition. (See Appendix to this book for text of the Act.)

Lobbying for Professional Development

Actions by Congress and the Executive branch are accompanied by considerable lobbying efforts and intercessions by special interest groups. Several groups, namely, AACTE, NEA, and AFT have a major if not proprietary interest in Title V, while others, including the Council of State School Officers (CCSSO), the National School Boards Association (NSBA), and the American Association of School Administrators (AASA) have significant but less direct interest in that piece of legislation. An emerging force in 1980 was the National Council for State Inservice Education (NCSIE) -- which particularly focused on the issue of state role and administration of Title V. Whether it can sustain that involvement will largely depend upon its acquisition of alternative (and non-Federal) funding.

During the 96th Congress, the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education put its efforts solidly behind the attempt to aid schools of education and also recommended the reauthorization of both the Teacher Corps and Teacher Centers Programs, with its strongest support going for the Teacher Corps program. AACTE has also been a strong supporter of introducing legislation for an administrator training program.

The National Education Association, which convened the coalition that drafted the original Teacher Center legislation in 1976, continues

to fight for the Teacher Centers Program, and has gone so far as to recommend that all the other efforts in educational personnel development operate under the Teacher Centers. The American Federation of Teachers has supported the reauthorization of both Teacher Corps and Teacher Centers, giving some edge to Teacher Centers. At an early stage, AFT accepted AACTE's efforts to secure passage of the Schools of Education Assistance Act.

While all three groups (along with CCSSO and NCSIE) were involved in an Education Department Transition Team study (chaired by Russell Woods) of the Coordination of Professional Development Programs, none of these groups actively sought its inclusion in the Education Amendments of 1980. Each group apparently thought the other wanted this coordination piece, was suspicious of the intent of the authorization, and while doing little to support it, made no effort to stop the measure for fear of having to "trade away" its own piece.

Whether these interest groups were able to exert undue influence in 1980 because of the absence of strong Administration interests -- limited by the transition -- remains open to speculation.

Education Department Involvement

In the euphoria surrounding the establishment of the Education Department, many assumed that professional development would receive priority attention. After all, the Department was in large measure the creation of a President indebted to the National Education Association. Some great expectations for increased funding for personnel development were centered on the Office for Dissemination and Professional Improvement. The establishment of this office had been recommended by the National Teacher Development Initiative back in 1978; had been authorized by the House in its bill, H.R. 5192; and most recently, had been recommended by a committee established by William L. Smith when he assumed the responsibilities as the last U.S. Commissioner of Education in January 1980.

That committee worked very closely with the Secretary of Education Transition Teams which were set in motion soon after P.L. 96-[illegible], creating the new Department, was passed in October 1979. Two of the program transition task forces were assigned the responsibility of making recommendations regarding educational personnel development: the Education Research and Improvement Task Force and the Elementary and Secondary Education Task Force. These two task forces and the committee established by Smith focused

their energies on placement of programs within the new Department. Placement of the Teacher Corps and Teacher Centers programs dominated the discussions right down to the wire. While some favored placing them together, others advocated putting the Teacher Centers Program in the Office of Elementary and Secondary Education and Teacher Corps in the Office of Educational Research and Improvement. The Secretary of Education, Shirley M. Hufstedler, made the final decision, based on an assessment of the data presented to her by the task forces, the committee, arguments presented by her two Assistant Secretaries Designate, and the cases presented by a myriad of special interest groups. She ruled that Teacher Centers should be placed in the Office of Elementary and Secondary Education and that the Teacher Corps program be placed in the Office of Dissemination and Professional Improvement in the Office of Educational Research and Improvement. Much speculation has gone on about how and why these two programs were separated in the final organizational structure, but external agencies seem more concerned than Departmental staff. The Secretary has repeatedly stated that she expects considerable interchange among programs throughout the Department.

New York University professor of education James F. Rutherford was named to the position of Assistant Secretary for the Office of Educational Research and Improvement after successfully administering science education programs for the National Science Foundation (NSF). He has stated that there are two major functions for the Office of Dissemination and Professional Improvement: (a) "to coordinate efforts in dissemination and educational personnel development across the entire department and (b) to look at new and creative ways the Federal government might be involved in the professional development of the nation's education personnel." His Deputy Assistant Secretary, Milton Goldberg, had taken only the most tentative steps in the implementation of these functions when the 1980 election occurred.

Personnel Development Under a Reagan Administration

This paper was completed shortly after the 1980 presidential election. The writers had access to the Heritage Foundation's transition paper for the Department of Education, with its call for a significant shift of Federal responsibility for education to state and local levels and a corresponding reduction in the size, budget, and enforcement capabilities of the Department (Docksai, et al., 1980). Imbedded in the report is the argument that the some 150 existing categorical programs have tended to promote excessive centralization, distort state and local budgets, impede relevant

research and development, and facilitate interventionist policies and practices. The report argues that there are three legitimate functions for a Federal Department of Education: (a) information and data gathering and dissemination, (b) consultation and technical assistance, and (c) educational research and development. Aside from these functions, according to the report, all programs should be consolidated into a limited number of block grants and returned to the states on the basis of a predetermined formula.

This policy, a hallmark of Republican politics since 1968, has figured prominently in party platforms and in legislation promoted by an array of Republican Congressmen and Senators. It is advocated by those who would simplify and reduce vigorous Federal initiatives in a variety of social programs -- all dependent upon the public school as the instrument of social change. Transferring the locus for educational policy making and the administration of programs to promote qualitative improvements in our schools from Washington to the state capitols has an obvious appeal -- particularly to burgeoning bureaucracies at the state level. This transfer would be reinforced by the property tax limitations which, in reality, tend to shift the financial burden for schools away from local school districts to state governments. The combination of the two -- plus the elasticity of revenue sources at the state governmental level -- suggests that massive statewide control of schooling could become a reality within a short period of time.

Whether programs for professional development should be part of the "simplification, consolidation, and block grant" effort is a significant policy question, warranting the attention of policy makers. Whether policy makers will choose even to consider the question is of major concern to some within the education community. Republican policy surrounding "personnel development" efforts over the past twenty years has been decidedly negative: characterized by the dismantling of EPDA during the Nixon-Ford Administration and the inclusion of teacher training in the block grants for Vocational Education in 1976. The imposition of coordination and planning mandates for all personnel development programs, which grew out of a botched Carter Administration initiative in 1978, were brought to fruition through the efforts of Republican staff members in the 96th Congress and included in Title V of P.L. 96-374. Therefore, whether Republican policy makers would be willing to participate in this policy debate remained a fundamental question in December 1980.

The politicalization of the teacher organizations, particularly the significant endorsement and support of the Carter-Mondale ticket in

1980, presages a difficult time for efforts to deal seriously with such policy questions. The above referenced report of the Heritage Foundation describes the $14.0 million program for Teachers Centers as "taxpayer financed union halls" in which "government money" is used "to support the programs of special interest groups" (Docksai, et al., 1980, p. 46). Certainly the Teachers Centers program is significantly influenced by the teacher organizations. It remains uncertain whether narrow, politically-based policy making in a Reagan White House will dictate the demise of this and other similar professional development programs or whether policy makers will recognize that the quality of education, both public and private, is dependent upon quality teaching.

Groups interested in personnel development will argue that federally supported professional development programs ought to be a high priority of the Federal government. Undoubtedly, they will argue that leadership development components of the various categorical programs should not be included in grant consolidation schemes but administered by the Education Department (or whatever entity comes to administer the "legitimate functions" of Federal education policy). They are certain to premise their arguments on the reality that when in the past the functions of leadership development have been delegated to the states or local educational agencies, they have been slighted if not neglected. The interests of others -- particularly those who would supplant local monies with federally rebated dollars -- have tended to minimize investments in personnel development. When local and state decision makers are confronted with tough budgetary decisions there is repeated evidence that educational research, dissemination, development, and training are neglected. Undoubtedly these interested groups will advocate the need for Federal assistance to a wide range of personnel development programs, in the form of grants to individuals, and to institutions to prepare and serve those individuals.

Summary

We believe that Title V of the Higher Education Act (as amended by P.L. 96-374) offers a rich and varied portfolio of program opportunities. Teacher Corps with its "school site improvement" orientation, Teacher Centers with its focus on individual teachers, and the Schools of Education Assistance Act offer at least three ways to improve significantly the quality of teaching. If components for merit scholarships, teacher fellowships, and administrator training were to be added during the 97th Congress, and the entire package were adequately funded, we would have attained much for the schools of America.

Reflecting on these events and forecasts, one can see continuity and a progression of involvement of the Federal government in the professional development of educational personnel. This movement is largely the result of efforts made by organizations such as the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education, the National Education Association, the American Federation of Teachers, and others. What future directions the government takes in providing resources and programs for educational personnel will be influenced by those institutions and people who make their voices heard in the nation's capital.

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THE PROBLEMS AND COMPLEXITIES OF INTER-COLLEGIATE COLLABORATION

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Introduction

When individuals collaborate, they usually assume that the joint process will produce greater benefits than if they had worked alone, or that the costs incurred are considerably less than if the same tasks were undertaken individually. These assumptions, however, remain conjecture; the information that exists on collaboration does not address these issues (see Howsam, 1979). Studies on collaboration have been limited to: a) descriptions and profiles of particular collaborative arrangements (James and Brown, 1975; Patterson, 1975; Smith and Bernstein, 1979) and b) skills and techniques for becoming successful collaborators (Bush, 1978; Tikunoff and Ward, 1979). Without data, it is very difficult to determine how collaboration occurs or how effective it is. One way to begin to explore these questions is to identify systematically the collaborative process and the problems involved in the process. Through such a framework it becomes somewhat easier to isolate some of the conditions that are likely to impede or enhance the effectiveness of a collaborative effort.

Formulating a Collaborative Effort: Some Considerations

This paper focuses on collaboration among institutions of higher education, illuminating some of the unique problems associated with this activity. Collaboration is examined in light of internal institutional factors and external social and political factors that are likely to affect the outcome.

Defining collaboration. Perhaps the best way to define collaboration is in reference to cooperation and coalition formation. When individuals cooperate, they are seeking a process to achieve a mutually agreed upon goal. Cooperation refers to the method of achieving that goal. Coalitions are alliances formed to achieve a mutually agreed upon goal. The emphasis in this instance is on the alliance rather than on the process. Groups, organizations, and associations form coalitions to cooperate in achieving mutual goals.

Collaboration encompasses both the formulation of alliances and the process by which common goals are achieved. Collaboration shares common characteristics with cooperation and coalition formation in that all of these activities are temporal arrangements, requiring some solidarity and cohesion of goals to be effective. The matching of goals is affected by the means of forming alliances. Thus, the first step in understanding how collaboration occurs is to examine factors which influence such formulation.

Institutional Factors Affecting Collaborative Activities

The most important consideration in the formulation of the collaborative effort is the willingness to collaborate, which is partially determined by: 1) choice -- whether the individual freely chooses to collaborate; and 2) interest -- if the individual represents personal interests, departmental interests, or institutional interests. Concepts of voluntarism and interest have been used to describe how groups are formed and operate (Wilson, 1973). The concepts seem to have particular relevance for helping to identify some of the problems in undertaking collaborative activities both within and among departments and institutions.

Choice and interests. Collaboration among individuals which is voluntarily initiated for their own self-interest is likely to succeed. However, more problems are likely if collaboration is requested by a chancellor, dean, or chairperson and involves a project of marginal personal interest but of great institutional or departmental interest. Thus the willingness to collaborate is more likely to be highest among faculty members with mutual interests, voluntarily participating in a collaborative activity. In this instance it matters little whether the collaborative activity is occurring across departments or across institutions; faculty members sharing intellectual concerns frequently communicate and work cooperatively across departmental or institutional lines. However, when a faculty member is requested to collaborate by a dean or departmental chairperson, the lack of choice tends to reduce willingness to collaborate -- unless the rewards, monetary or professional service credits for participation, can compensate for voluntary initiation.

In addition to a high reward for participation, the activity has to be of interest to the individual. If the activity is of marginal interest to the individual, he or she will be less willing to participate, despite its importance to the department or institution. This is perhaps

more apparent in situations where a faculty member is asked by a dean to participate in an inter-university activity such as planning exchange programs for young scholars. Faculty members tend to think of these activities as professional service. No matter how many service credits they receive when the interests are institutional, faculty members, acting in the interests of the university, are less willing than if acting on their own behalf.

In large, prestigious private and public universities, the situation is even more difficult. In these institutions, the faculty has the dominant role in academic decision-making. While administrators in these institutions are also strong, their decision-making authority has often been limited to university-wide, long-range planning. This combination of an autonomous faculty and strong administrators creates high levels of tension within the institution as the boundaries of authority and responsibility are continually being negotiated. Administrators can be reluctant to relinquish power to faculty members to act specifically in the interests of the university. And faculty members are not inclined to be particularly cooperative in participating in a project initiated by an administrator.

In contrast, faculty participation in governance is low among private liberal arts, community, and two-year colleges. Administrators tend to dominate decision-making by directly supervising academic and other professional faculty responsibilities. Collaboration initiated by the administration in this setting may not meet with as many difficulties as in the large, elite institutions. It would seem that the governance structure of the institution partially determines who initiates the decision to participate in the collaborative process.

Sometimes a faculty member is requested by the departmental chairperson to participate in an intra-university project such as the development of an interdisciplinary center. In this instance, the faculty member may be willing because the project is closely aligned to his or her own interests. Very often in large, elite universities, the allegiance to the department is greater than to the institution as a whole (Baldridge, et al., 1978). The commonality of goals and interests within a department builds on this sense of allegiance to the discipline. Of course, if the department is not a strong, stable unit, and there is a great deal of internal strife, collaboration on departmental interests may prove more difficult.

When an administrator chooses to collaborate on behalf of the interests of the institution, the situation is very different from a faculty

member's collaboration. An administrator is knowledgeable about resources that can be pledged to insure the success of the project. While an administrator operates from the perspective of the whole university, a faculty member's strongest allegiance is more likely to be to his or her own discipline. Therefore, collaboration in the interest of the university is more directly tied to the individual interest of the administrator. If the reputation of the university is strengthened by the collaborative effort, then the administrator receives a direct reward.

It is therefore not surprising to find that college and university presidents, vice presidents, provosts, or deans are the primary actors in many collaborative activities, particularly in cross-institutional efforts. For example, college and university executives are found on the boards of the American Council of Education, Association of American Universities, and the National Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges. Similarly, major collaborative activities of some permanence among schools, colleges and departments of education (SCDEs) are usually represented by deans. Examples include the board of directors for the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE) and the Association of Colleges and Schools of Education in State Universities and Land Grant Colleges and Affiliated Private Universities (ACSESULGC/APU).

Willingness to collaborate is probably highest among scholars collaborating with other scholars, and among administrators collaborating with other administrators over institutional interests. Depending upon the power and cohesion of the department, faculty members are usually willing to work for departmental interests. Faculty members are often less willing to collaborate on behalf of their institutions. There may, of course, be exceptions. In some small colleges, the allegiance of the faculty to the institution is stronger than to the department or to an individual discipline. In such situations, faculty members would probably be willing to collaborate in the interests of their institutions.

External Factors Affecting Collaborative Activities

In addition to choice and interest there are other factors which influence collaborative efforts. Demographic, geographic, economic, and social conditions are likely to affect the formation of the collaborative activity. In the examples discussed so far, collaboration is initiated within institutions. However, collaboration is often mandated by Federal legislation or required by state education agencies (SEAs). A Federal statute, such as The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (PL 89-10),

may require collaboration among public schools and institutions of higher education. In addition, demographic and economic conditions have made collaboration between institutions necessary.

Demographic and geographic factors. Changing demographic factors have reduced the number of American students applying to undergraduate programs in major universities. SCDEs have been among the major academic units hardest hit by declining enrollments in both undergraduate and graduate programs. More recently, some of the places formerly filled by eighteen-year-old Americans have been taken by foreign students. While the influx of part-time and mid-career adults has also alleviated the effects of declining enrollment trends (Chronicle of Higher Education, January, 1980, excerpts from Three Thousand Futures: The Next Twenty Years for Higher Education, Final Report of the Carnegie Council on Policy Studies for Higher Education), the needs of these students have added additional burdens. Despite this new clientele, SCDEs have not regained the enrollment levels which existed in more prosperous times. Many SCDEs still are faced with decreases in credit hour production which have severely cut their budgets, particularly in state-supported institutions. Both for financial and programmatic reasons, institutional collaboration can be beneficial for SCDEs. Several collaborative arrangements have been established to share resources, such as the Five Colleges (Amherst College, Hampshire Colleges, Mount Holyoke College, Smith and the University of Massachusetts). The agreement among the institutions is to assess cooperative possibilities before making internal decisions to replace staff, courses, or facilities.

Perhaps part of the success of the Five Colleges can be attributed to their geographical proximity. The majority of collaborative arrangements occur among institutions that are in close proximity to one another; collaboration is inhibited when distance makes the logistics and costs of such an endeavor prohibitive.

Economic and political factors. Because of the high costs of forming and implementing collaborative arrangements, it is difficult to sustain such efforts. Some costs often associated with collaboration are travel, communication, and supplies. However, none of these begins to equal the greatest nonrecoverable costs -- the time and energy of the collaborators. Therefore, the rewards of collaboration have to compensate for the financial burdens associated with the activity.

Another economic condition that has influenced willingness to collaborate has been the availability of funds for research and development. Even though the amount of money available for research has not declined

sharply for universities, the operating costs for undertaking research have risen considerably. Therefore, although constant dollars are being maintained for university research, they can buy substantially fewer research opportunities. In addition to decreases in Federal support for university research and development, private funds and state appropriations have begun to falter. These changing finances have had an effect on the types of research activities that can be conducted in universities. Constraints on research and development support have inspired some institutions to formulate collaborative, interdisciplinary research projects.

Most collaborative interdisciplinary research projects tend to be temporary arrangements, disbanded when a specific activity is completed. However, an excellent example of a more sustained effort is the Harvard-MIT Joint Center for Urban Studies. Another example is the Midwest Universities Consortium for International Activities (MUCIA), which has as its major objective the establishment of a worldwide network of higher education research. The Invisible College at Michigan State University is another illustration of a more recent interdisciplinary research activity, specifically designed to encourage dialogue on educational topics.

Political pressures have also affected the willingness of institutions to collaborate. Federal action concerning research on human subjects, affirmative action, and proposed truth-in-testing legislation has had direct implications for institutions of higher education. Universities have often felt compelled to collaborate to protect their interests in regard to legislation that will undoubtedly affect their operation. For example, in Michigan and New York, SCDE deans among the major universities have directed part of their collaborative efforts toward political activities at the Federal level.

In summary, collaboration is more likely to be effective if there is an agreed willingness on the part of the participants to engage in the activity and that effort is recognized and rewarded by the institution. Furthermore, external conditions may impede or enhance that collaborative effort. These factors explain in part <u>why</u> institutions collaborate. The next step is to examine <u>how</u> and over <u>what issues</u> institutions are likely to engage in collaborative activities.

Purposes of Collaboration

As defined above, collaboration encompasses both coalition formation and cooperation. The strength of the coalition is determined by the

incentives to collaborate, which include both institutional rewards and external forces. However, a strong coalition is not sufficient to build an effective collaborative effort. A successful collaborative activity depends in part on how effectively institutions can cooperate with each other on a specific activity. Cooperation is more likely to be enhanced if the collaborators have a clear understanding of the purposes of the collaborative effort (including what the collaborative effort will produce and how it will be used) and their roles and responsibilities in the activity.

If the collaborative effort is to be effective, it must attain the goals set by the participants. The first critical part of the collaborative effort is to identify expected accomplishments. The collaborators must reach a consensus on the goals -- a process made more complex when they represent diverse institutional types. However, some agreement on goals is essential to planning how the effort should be accomplished. Collaboration can serve at least three purposes for institutions of higher education: 1) influencing policy development at the national and state levels; 2) generating new knowledge; and 3) resource sharing.

Influencing policy development. Perhaps the most difficult type of collaborative activity is that which is designed to influence policy. In order to have a major impact on policy development, institutions must reach some consensus among diverse interest groups about their legislative goals. Having reached an agreement, the group must be politically sophisticated in transmitting its positions to key political actors, having its positions adopted by influential groups, and planning strategies to ensure the enactment of its positions.

The diversity among institutions makes it extremely difficult to reach a level of compromise that accommodates all groups. Representatives must be able to respond to broad initiatives by setting priorities and formulating acceptable alternative models. With the increasing number and complexity of issues, individuals often lack sufficient information to make a judicious decision.

Furthermore, the collegial style of negotiations often used in higher education is not very effective in negotiating with lobbying groups where positions are bargained over, negotiations are openly antagonistic, and moves toward compromises may be taken as signs of weakness. Since institutions of higher education have not had the power or influence to negotiate effectively for their own interests, they are perceived as ineffective.

Then they enter negotiation at a disadvantage. The reluctance of institutions to form power blocks of support has severely limited their power in the political arena. No unified higher education constituency has supported a policy initiative with dollars, votes, letter writing campaigns, and other forms of political activity. This situation was quite apparent in the lack of cohesive support among institutional associations for the legislation to create a separate Department of Education. Lacking cohesion and political savvy, higher education is rarely seen as a powerful, influential lobbying group. These conditions further curtail the effectiveness of collaborative activities to influence policy.

There are some exceptions. Several associations, most notably the American Council on Education and the American Association of University Professors which have full-time paid lobbyists with major support staffs, are extremely active and sophisticated in their lobbying efforts. Another example of an association which is comparatively new at the role of influencing policy is the Commission on Governmental Relations of the American Association of Colleges for Teacher Education (AACTE). This Commission was established approximately five years ago through the efforts of several SCDE deans primarily interested in increasing research and development opportunities for schools of education through Federal legislation. During the past five years, the Commission has enlisted the support of several other associations to assist them in their efforts. They include the Legislative Liaison and Planning Committee for the Association of Colleges and Schools of Education in State Universities and Land-Grant Colleges and Affiliated Private Universities, the American Educational Research Association, the Deans' Network, and the Higher Education Consortium for Special Education.

It is difficult to assess how effective the Commission has been in actually changing policy. One problem facing the Commission is the need to educate its constituency of 777 diverse institutions about goals, methods, and accomplishments. There has been considerable confusion over the issues and the means to implement effective strategies for influencing Congress. When confronting experienced, well supported educational lobbyists on the issues, the Commission has often been hampered by its lack of resources. Finally, as additional groups have been invited to join the Commission, there have been acute problems of consensus building.

The Commission has become a presence on the Washington scene. However, it would be premature to assess how effective its efforts have been. Resource and commitment problems among the constituent members have in some sense curtailed their efforts. Furthermore, as the Commission has expanded its membership and activities to cover many more issues related to education,

its efforts have become somewhat diffuse, and their effectiveness harder to monitor. However, given the tenuous quality of political victories, presence may be more salient than success or failure.

Generating new knowledge. Another type of collaborative effort is the generation of new knowledge. Many of the problems facing researchers today seem to require a large number of interacting components, combining the methods and insights from many disciplines. Problem solutions can cut across the organizational boundaries that were more or less set by individual disciplines. As the problems have become more complex, researchers have had to become more flexible about where and how these boundaries should be placed. Collaboration is often seen as a way to bridge the individual disciplinary focus to problem solving.

Some of the problems unique to this type of collaborative activity center on the reward structures, problem selection, and interpersonal relations. Elite universities tend to consider only first authorship in a multiple effort as worthy of recognition. In some institutions, then, the reward system undermines collaborative activities. Second, a group may find it difficult to identify a clear problem, especially when there are members participating from a variety of disciplines. When the problem is well defined, it is easier to work on different interpretations than trying to find an intersecting area among diverse perspectives. Third, in interdisciplinary research teams, or groups composed of administrators, faculty members, practitioners, etc., there are many different philosophical values. These differences in philosophy can hinder a group's efforts to address a common problem. Furthermore, the qualities of the group leader, such as experience in working with groups, tend to enhance the effectiveness of the collaborative effort.

The Deans' Network, a consortium of forty universities with strong graduate programs in education that are heavily engaged in educational research and development, is an example of a group that has systematically engaged in some successful collaborative activities. The Network was established through the efforts of a select number of SCDE deans who, acting in the interests of their schools, maintained that new knowledge, skills, and educational leadership would be fostered through a consortium. Although the institutions are located throughout the country, the Network tries to hold meetings in conjunction with other professional events so that travel costs can be minimized. In the beginning, a substantial grant from the W.K. Kellogg Foundation helped to defer some of the major expenses. During the past two years, travel, meeting costs, and released time have been paid by various institutional affiliates. The continued financial in-kind institutional support is indicative of a strong incentive to collaborate.

The Deans' Network has sponsored many different activities: conferences, workshops, seminars, and faculty exchanges. Most of these have been designed to generate new knowledge or consider policy decisions in such areas as maintaining quality graduate programs and defining the role of teacher education in undergraduate programs.

Resource sharing. Probably the easiest type of collaborative activity to pursue is that which is designed for resource sharing purposes. The declining growth of institutions of higher education has increased the need for flexibility in programs, reductions in costs, and adapting existing resources to new needs. The sharing of facilities, faculties, and program offerings is one way institutions can maintain their vitality.

An excellent example of the type of cooperative program suggested by the Carnegie Foundation is the Committee on Institutional Cooperation (CIC).*/ The Committee performs several functions, including: 1) cooperative instructional programs (pooling university resources to support joint programs and unusual field opportunities); 2) development of educational resources (promoting cooperation in library innovation and networking, establishing jointly owned film collections and laboratory facilities, creating nontraditional educational systems, developing special shows and exhibitions); 3) faculty and curricular development (creating inter-institutional exchange programs for senior faculty, generating reports on special programs, supporting studies that enhance the performance of individuals charged with university leadership, providing a forum where faculty members and administrators can meet regularly to exchange information).

The success of CIC and other networks built on resource sharing purposes could be attributed to: 1) the explicit goals of the collaborative activity; 2) the clear benefits of the project for the participants; and 3) the definite lines of responsibility and coordination.

Roles and responsibilities. Another important factor in the collaborative process is identifying who will have responsibility for coordinating the activity. This aspect would include determining the communication network and assigning roles and responsibilities. Even the simplest tasks require a clear understanding of the division of work assignments. Without a succinct agreement on the part of the collaborators concerning

*/ The Committee is formed by the chief academic officers of the University of Chicago, the University of Illinois, Indiana University, the University of Iowa, the University of Michigan, Michigan State University, the University of Minnesota, Northwestern University, Ohio State University, Purdue University, and the University of Wisconsin.

who has responsibility for specific tasks and what role the groups should serve, it is unlikely that the project can be very effective.

It is often assumed, particularly among individuals representing institutions of higher education, that the collaborative group will exchange information and opinions on a collegial basis. This idea is something of a myth. Patterns of group interaction among institutions of higher education are not geared toward sharing; they are highly individualistic and competitive from the individual to the institutional level. Thus, the group leader has to be sensitive to perceptions of status, authority, and power among the group members. In the collaborative process, it becomes necessary to provide opportunities for individuality, yet at the same time foster some form of collective responsibility for the outcomes.

Summary

Given these circumstances, what makes a successful collaborative effort? From the examples it seems that there are several characteristics that successful collaborative efforts share. First, the participants are motivated to collaborate. In the instances of CIC and The Five Colleges, economic, demographic, and geographic conditions influenced the institutions to form collaborative agreements. In the example of the Deans' Network, concern about the quality of educational programs and the importance of leadership to education provided the impetus to collaborate. Collaboration among these institutions is facilitated because they share similar goals and reward structures which facilitate the consensus building process.

Furthermore, the collaborators, usually administrative leaders, have shared the major responsibilities for planning and implementing the activity, minimizing problems of resource commitments. In both the examples of CIC and the Deans' Network, the majority of the collaborative activities are centered on resource sharing. It is important to recognize that this type of activity is perhaps the least difficult collaborative effort to undertake. When the goals of the effort are directed toward generating new knowledge or influencing policy, collaboration becomes more of a challenge. Institutions trying to proceed in these two areas should be aware of how difficult it is to reach consensus on political and intellectual matters, particularly among individuals representing institutions with varying missions. Finally, the success of the activity relies on the individuals involved in the effort. A cooperative working arrangement in which all the individuals take collective responsibility for the outcomes makes collaboration more likely to succeed.

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MODELS OF COLLABORATION WITH OTHER AGENCIES: IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FUTURE

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Previous chapters in this monograph have established the need to view teacher education in fresh ways and have posed new missions or orientations for schools, colleges, and departments of education (SCDEs). An important implication of these proposals is that SCDEs will need to collaborate more effectively with local education agencies (LEAs) and state education agencies (SEAs), as well as with a host of other agencies, if the new views and missions are to be fruitful. This chapter focuses on policy issues concerning these new collaborative arrangements. These policy issues will be discussed under two headings: issues related to the development and maintenance of more effective collaborative arrangements, and issues concerning the role which models of various types can play in enhancing effective collaboration, with implications for the future.

The Development and Maintenance of More Effective Collaborative Arrangements

Policy makers, administrators, and practitioners face a number of different policy issues when they consider appropriate goals and strategies for improved collaboration between institutions of higher education (IHEs) and outside agencies. Many of these issues are encompassed in the following set of questions:

1. Why is it important for SCDEs to be involved in collaborative efforts?

2. How can the effectiveness of collaboration be measured and increased?

3. How can collaborative efforts be established and maintained to enhance SCDEs?

4. How can collaborative efforts be integrated into the ongoing missions and structure of the SCDE?

Trends in the larger society make these questions even more urgent for those persons concerned with the role which IHEs will play in education and related human service endeavors.

The rationale for greater collaboration. In the past, discussions concerning collaboration for SCDEs have gravitated rather quickly to issues of governance and, more specifically, to questions of the size of voting blocks representing different institutions. While these issues have been important in the context of the power politics of the times, it is useful to begin a policy-oriented discussion of collaboration between IHEs and other agencies with a review of the rationale for greater collaboration. In an earlier chapter, Feistritzer offers a perspective on this issue based on the roles which government plays in education. The perspective in this chapter focuses more directly on the benefits which SCDEs might derive from greater collaboration.

SCDEs will experience a number of benefits when they increase their collaborative efforts. Increased collaboration is likely to attract new students to the schools of education. Collaboration will give SCDE faculty members and programs greater exposure to both traditional and nontraditional markets of potential students. Collaboration also helps strengthen the willingness of other senior professionals to recommend that potential students enter univeristy programs; it helps SCDE faculty members to gain new insights and skills while developing innovative programs. Collaborative research efforts with other agencies are also desirable in refining research focuses, pooling diverse research talents, and structuring or funding research projects. As a corollary, both research and field-oriented programs are likely to generate new funds for SCDEs.

SCDEs will increase their internal flexibility through the establishment of centers and internal networks of faculty members. It is also likely that SCDEs will be able to attract new staff members in roles other than traditional tenure-track faculty positions because of increased collaboration.

More collaboration can have positive psychological benefits for SCDEs. Currently, there is a conservative mentality within SCDEs, as job mobility declines along with budgets and student enrollments. Increased collaboration can open new possibilities, resulting in a more positive work climate as well as more material benefits. Collaboration can also provide new vehicles for discovering and using the special talents of SCDE faculty members. This change can increase work satisfaction among faculty members as well as influence the real and perceived contribution of universities to the larger society.

Political necessity may also play a role in increasing SCDE collaboration with other agencies. State governments often require that

universities be accountable for the variety of services they provide. States are becoming unwilling to maintain existing budgets when traditional missions are not being fulfilled at previously expected levels.

Collaboration can be useful to SCDEs in ways ranging from direct benefits to overcoming political constraints. At the same time, these benefits become the basis for identifying and measuring the outcomes of collaboration involving SCDEs.

The expansion of collaborative efforts. An expansion of collaborative efforts requires a new perspective and the resolution of a complex set of interrelated issues; it cannot be accomplished through the discovery and dissemination of one or several models of collaborative governance. Collaboration in the context of inter-institutional cooperation has come to mean several things. First, it means a good working relationship or positive climate of opinion about the other institution and its representatives. Second, it means cooperative efforts in producing some product or result. Finally, it means joint decision-making or governance of these efforts.

Inter-institutional collaboration also has a number of dimensions. For example, its scope can range from individual or programmatic collaboration to systemic or institution-wide collaboration. Its degree of formalization can range from informal to joint power agreements or legislative language, and its duration can vary greatly. Clearly, the problem of building more collaboration depends upon which type one wishes to build and upon the set of benefits or outcomes one wishes to achieve. The remainder of this chapter will focus on somewhat formalized inter-institutional cooperation lasting at least one year. The emphasis will be on cooperative arrangements with LEAs and SEAs.

Two different modes of collaboration are needed: vertical collaboration within the state and the university bureaucracy so that SCDEs have greater flexibility to pursue new inter-agency arrangements, and horizontal collaboration with these other agencies. It is the latter mode that would characterize collaborative efforts with LEAs. Each mode presents a different set of problems.

The essential problem in vertical collaboration is to gain the authority, permission, and supportive funding to form new working relationships with other agencies. This general problem includes the need to establish the legitimacy of new missions or new interpretations of old missions. It also is a matter of overcoming institutional constraints which, while reasonable to a liberal arts-oriented university administration and faculty,

limit the flexibility of SCDEs to work with other agencies. These constraints include rules about tuition, class scheduling and location, faculty load determination, and similar issues. The problem is also one of securing new institutional or "hard dollar" funding, or at least reallocating existing resources, to support the missions and programs enhanced by the new collaborative arrangements. The funding problem in vertical collaboration also includes gaining greater legitimacy for budgets other than the dean's "hard money" university budget.

The problems of horizontal collaboration are more serious; horizontal collaboration frequently mirrors or even magnifies the conflicts of values, purpose, administrative arrangements, and rewards within the SCDE itself. Although it is necessary to increase horizontal collaboration if SCDEs are to realize the benefits, a host of issues must be resolved first.

An important issue related to increased collaborative activities is the establishment of sizable, stable funding patterns. One cause of this problem has been the loss of a sizable preservice enrollment within the SCDE which formed the economic backbone for other worthwhile activities. In contrast, for example, field services or inservice teacher education programs have several unattractive features: They barely pay for themselves, their funding is highly unstable, and they typically require considerable "marketing" expenses in the form of pre-contractual proposal development and arrangement making.

Another dimension of the funding issue is the vested interest which many faculty members have in maintaining private consulting arrangements for carrying out both research and field services activities. Consequently, some faculty members are less interested in conducting these activities through institutional arrangements within the SCDE. Because there are several types of budgets within the SCDE, funding obtained from services other than tuition-generated dollars lacks legitimacy. Finally, it has been difficult to reallocate existing resources within the SCDE to undertake new missions, or new approaches to established missions. In short, SCDEs have difficulty in establishing sizable, stable funding that does not require extensive pre-contractual efforts. This problem pertains both to the internal reallocation of existing funds and to the establishment of market-responsive new activities within the SCDE.

A second major issue is the translation of benefits derived from increased collaborative efforts into accomplishments which are valued by both the SCDE and the larger university. For example, Marsh and Carey

(1980) have argued that increased field services, which might be enhanced by increased collaborative efforts, are given little merit within the university because they are construed as a service function. A service activity creates problems for both the individual faculty member and the SCDE because it is given a low priority within the university. Marsh and Carey suggest ways that these field activities can be translated into research and teaching functions which, they argue, will enhance the quality of the field activities themselves as well as increase their perceived merit within the university. A similar translation problem arises as an SCDE accepts new types of students and seeks to develop market-responsive programs to meet their needs.

A third major issue is the nature of institutional change and program development efforts within SCDEs which must be achieved if collaborative activities are to be significantly increased. One dimension of this problem is the need for SCDEs to find a meaningful balance between stability and change as they pursue new opportunities through increased collaborative efforts. Bergquist (1978) sees the balance between change and stabilization as follows:

> On the one hand, there is a need for change: new curricula, specialized programs, scheduling and funding patterns, attitudes, skills and knowledge. On the other hand, there is a need for stabilization: reflection on the institution's primary mission, celebration and reaffirmation of the valuable and distinct, and the identification and implementation of the humane and equitable personnel selection, retention, and dismissal procedures. (p. 18)

A balance between stability and change within SCDEs is a philosophical and a policy issue which must underlie program changes associated with increased collaborative efforts.

Change within SCDEs as a means of increasing collaborative efforts is a problem of faculty development, program development, and institutional change. It is a faculty development problem since individual faculty members typically must develop new skills and motivation to carry out innovative field service or research efforts enhanced by collaborative arrangements. However, many recent articles on faculty growth within SCDEs (Gideonse, 1978; Mathis, 1978; Bergquist, 1978; Kersh, 1978; Howsam, Corrigan, Denemark, & Nash, 1976; Marsh & Carey, 1980) have discussed the importance of viewing faculty development in the context of a redefinition of

institutional missions and strategies for achieving these institutional missions. They agree with Gideonse (1978) that, " . . . staff development cannot afford to be viewed as an isolated need or activity. Instead, it must be related to budget, faculty review, and evaluation, and linked to program review and priority setting within the institution" (p. 2).

Increased collaborative efforts will require a program development dimension. Marsh and Carey suggest that, ". . . program development implies setting new long-range goals to accommodate additional programs and planning strategies to meet these goals." (p. 9) Ultimately, Marsh and Carey prefer to view the problem of increasing SCDE involvement in field services as one of organizational change rather than only of program or faculty development. They argue that:

> . . . organizational change encompasses the dimensions of faculty and program development but also gives attention to organizational support services; organizational conflict based on differences in values, rewards, or incentives; the influence of new programs and program directions upon ongoing organizational features; and the political tensions found in complex organizations. (p. 13)

In expanding this perspective, they present a number of organizational constraints which inhibit SCDE involvement in field services and related activities. They also present a planning guide which, when adapted slightly, would suggest planning steps and a perspective for increasing a wide variety of collaborative efforts.

Another major issue in increasing SCDE collaborative activities is the problem of generating sufficient leadership and motivation within the SCDE. In part, this is a problem of faculty consulting arrangements in competition with institutional support as described above. Faculty members are hesitant to give up their consulting arrangements, which constitute a private network of collaborative efforts with other agencies and individuals -- especially in light of meager institutional rewards and incentives for faculty involvement in SCDE-based collaborative efforts.

Another dimension of the problem is the organizational context which influences faculty motivation to become involved in collaborative efforts. Collaborative arrangements frequently call for faculty members to give up cherished courses, time schedules, committee memberships, or related privileges which are slowly acquired within the academic world.

Moreover, faculty members who are frequently off campus participating in collaborative activities tend to be ostracized by their peers. Finally, collaborative arrangements tend to precipitate role conflicts within SCDEs. Deans, tenured faculty members, and non-tenured faculty members may perceive innovative programs and collaborative arrangements from quite different, yet legitimate, points of view. These differences make it difficult to develop collective momentum, motivation, and leadership in exploring new collaborative arrangements.

Finally, the issue of internal governance and power distribution is an important consideration for SCDEs as they contemplate instituting collaborative arrangements. Marsh and Carey (1980) suggest that faculty committees with overlapping jurisdictions and a history of approving relatively stable programs often balk at approving flexible collaborative arrangements and their related programs. Marsh and Carey also argue that since collaborative program development of any type is rare within SCDEs, collaboration with external agencies becomes even more difficult.

Finally, they argue that field service programs typically require extensive involvement and rapid decisions by the dean; he or she must approve program funding, non-traditional program features, and staffing under a host of often quickly established special arrangements. Marsh and Carey report, "since each new inservice program seems to call for additional special arrangements, departmental chairpersons and/or other faculty members may feel uninformed, uninvolved, and uncomfortable about both the in-service program and the dean's power" (p. 49).

In summary, SCDEs must address issues concerning the size, stability, and difficulty of funding; the translation of benefits derived from collaborative efforts into missions and accomplishments acceptable by the SCDE and university; the improvement of faculty development, program development, and institutional change strategies which would allow collaborative efforts to increase; the enhancement of motivation and leadership to bring about collaborative efforts; and the refinement of internal governance structures which would permit collaborative efforts. The special attention I have given these issues reflects my belief that major hindrances to increased collaboration for SCDEs are nested within the institutional context of the SCDE itself.

The Role of Models in Increasing SCDE Collaboration With Other Agencies

The role which models of various types can play in increasing SCDE collaboration with other agencies is intimately connected to the future of

these activities within SCDEs. In this context, models can mean several things. First, they can be paradigms which portray relevant components or limits which must be considered if SCDEs are to increase their collaborative efforts. In this sense, paradigms are both descriptive and prescriptive. Second, models can be prescriptive exemplars of ways in which SCDEs have resolved the internal issues described above or a similar set of external issues. These exemplars could be either hypothetical or factual but, in any case, would need to be rich enough in detail to provide a guide to the myriad minor issues which all SCDEs must address. Finally, models can be process models which would illustrate to SCDEs how they might proceed to evolve more effective collaborative efforts. These process models or guides would need to suggest approaches for resolving internal organizational issues as well as for developing external collaborative arrangements with other agencies. All three types of models are critically needed.

Some of the content for these various models has been suggested in the previous section of this chapter. Both paradigms and exemplars would need to examine and help resolve the following issues:

- The establishment of sizable and stable funding
- The translation of benefits derived from collaborative efforts into missions and accomplishments acceptable to the SCDE and the university
- The improvement of faculty development, program development, and institutional change strategies
- The enhancement of SCDE staff motivation and leadership related to greater collaboration
- The refinement of internal governance structures as they relate to increased collaboration

A process planning guide, such as the one presented by Marsh and Carey (1980), may be the most effective type of model. It would help SCDEs to resolve organizational and substantive issues while accommodating both the political and technical dimensions of building new collaboration with external agencies.

A number of state- and federally-funded programs offering developmental assistance to institutions of higher education provide useful analogies and data which will help develop the models described above. For example, Teacher Corps, federally-funded Teacher Centers, Deans' Grants from the

Bureau of Education for the Handicapped (BEH), and similar programs lend insights about the effectiveness of Federal policy to enhance IHE collaboration with external agencies. At the state level, the Florida Teacher's Center experience and similar efforts in other states provide opportunities to derive additional insights necessary for building these models.

Implications for the future. The future pattern of SCDE collaboration with external agencies is hard to predict with any certainty. What is clearer is the set of issues which SCDEs will need to address if increased collaboration is to occur. There are reasons to be optimistic, however. One is that many SCDEs now recognize that they will need to change if they are to survive economic pressures. The current situation differs rather dramatically from the mood and condition of SCDEs in the recent past. Another reason to be optimistic is that state governments and university systems are now more willing to consider program revisions because they too are experiencing economic and political pressures toward greater program and institutional accountability and toward greater economic austerity.

This chapter has several implications for state and Federal policy makers addressing the questions of how to increase SCDE collaboration with external agencies, or how to help SCDEs achieve the new missions and mandates suggested in earlier chapters of this monograph. First, it is clear that external funds will be needed by SCDEs during the transition from old missions and organizational structures to new ones. These funds should support program development and refinement as well as stabilize SCDE budgets so that solid and comprehensive reform can be carried out. Second, experience with previous federally-funded change efforts suggests that the change process should be centrally located within SCDEs and involve a cross-section of administrators and tenured and non-tenured faculty members in a long-term planning and development process. It is important that SCDE personnel believe they have a major stake in the ownership of this change process and that the institutionalization of innovative programs and collaborative arrangements be explicitly required and planned for in the external funding arrangements. Corwin (1973, 1974) expands on the sociological factors which need to be addressed.

Third, it is important that state and Federal policy makers provide SCDEs with guidelines, technical assistance, and sufficient funds to address both the internal organizational and external issues described earlier in this chapter. The range of issues suggested here can become a benchmark against which the comprehensiveness of policy proposals can be assessed. Finally, state and Federal policy makers will want to explore ways to involve the entire university, the state-level university system, and the

legislature -- as well as the SCDE -- in making these organizational changes. To give a mandate for change to the SCDE without including the bureaucratic agencies to which it reports would only lead to continued frustration of attempts at productive collaborative arrangements with other agencies. SCDEs can make major contributions to the resolution of important educational problems, yet considerable effort is needed in order to unlock the untapped potential which most, if not all, SCDEs possess.

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PERSPECTIVES ON POLICY DEVELOPMENT FOR TEACHER EDUCATION*/

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Preface

Legislative actions and the power group negotiations which accompany their passage have had a significant impact on the system of educational personnel development in our country. There is much public disdain over the preparation of teachers. Can teacher education be adequately reformed and substantially improved if the current drift of public policy and legislation continues? Is the national system of teacher education prepared to face the challenges of the 21st Century or has national educational policy -- by intent or neglect -- placed it in jeopardy? What is needed to address the current crisis?

Why the Concern with Public Policy?

Education in our country is a peculiarly public enterprise. Unlike many other societies, we have chosen to educate our youth in a highly decentralized and heterogeneous fashion. Where else in the world is the education of youth delegated to 15,000 local authorities? Where else can educational policy result from the writings of a college president, national sociological studies, political interventions, efforts of organized labor, commissions of legislatures, influences of vested interest groups, and ultimate acts of Congress? The diversity and complexity of our public educational system are both a strength and a weakness.

Educational policy issues dominate much of the current literature. The social purposes of education have provided the impetus for most educational policy; the results have not been disappointing. In the last two decades, national directions in educational policy have been studied and discussed by a number of highly respected centers and prestigious foundations. These studies have tended to focus on equalizing the access, financing, and outcomes of education. Not much has been written about the implications of these policies for teaching and for teacher training.

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*/ Teacher education will refer to all activities in educational personnel development: training, research, dissemination, demonstration, evaluation, etc.

However, the consequences of social policy and legislation and the effects of demographics have done much to influence teacher education.

Currently, the American public is obsessed with the quality of teachers. Last year local, state and Federal governments spent $86 billion on public elementary and secondary schools. With 3.9 million full-time employees on the payrolls -- teachers, administrators, and service personnel -- the public schools top the military in employment (Berke, 1979). Dissatisfaction with the quality of schooling and the preparation of teachers has been a dominant issue in the national media. The public has developed one impression: that there are far too many teachers and not enough good ones.

While state and national laws abound with educational policy directives, they give little critical attention to the related needs for teacher education. When the responsibility for such training is assigned, it is not usually granted to schools, colleges, and departments of education (SCDEs). Rather, much education legislation transfers this traditional responsibility to other agencies and refers to SCDEs only as agencies also eligible to compete for funding.

Clearly, the size, scope, and complexity of education legislation and its impact on teacher education demand that the present drift of policy be halted. The future social challenges to our country's educational system demand that the resources of SCDEs become part of the solution to the educational crisis. As the volumes of Federal and state legislation attest, the government is unalterably linked to our country's educational process. The relationship of SCDEs to these processes must be assessed, discussed, challenged, and modified. Action plans which improve the delivery system of teacher education must be developed and implemented.

Policy and Teacher Education Reform

Public policy is the government's response to an identified problem. Policy definitions are generally limited to those governmental actions and subsequent programs which reflect the value priorities of society. These actions and their budgetary allocations reflect the priorities the government wants emphasized. Policy making is the result of the political process, and is therefore both rational and irrational. Although volumes are written documenting critical social needs, policy is often the result of an idea that is intuitive and politically viable (Florio 1980). Policies are articulated through Federal and state legislative acts and the subsequent

rules, regulations, and budgets which specify the nature of intended interactions between levels and agencies. Although much can be concluded from study of these acts themselves, governmental inaction can have as great an impact on social programs as governmental action. Consequently, those who assess policy must also take into account both governmental actions and inactions to determine their impact on intended and concomitant populations and institutions (Dye, 1975).

What effect does policy implementation have on particular institutions such as SCDEs? Are the outcomes of policy implementation consistent with the intended results of the policy proposal? What impact does the implementation of policy which creates or expands the resources and responsibilities of new agencies have on the role and resources of agencies traditionally charged with responsibility for these activities? How do the Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA), the Higher Education Act (HEA), and other Federal laws explicate public policy concerning the role of SCDEs in the preparation of educational personnel? Do they strengthen or weaken this role? Are parallel agencies developing new capacities while SCDEs are being dismantled?

Recently B. O. Smith (October 1980) has proposed that our system for educating teachers be thoroughly overhauled. In an extensive monograph (1980), he urges that colleges respond to public dissatisfaction and initiate immediate reforms without governmental assistance. He acknowledges that governmental, policial, and social forces currently threaten both the autonomy and the very existence of SCDEs. However, Smith, like other reformers writing from within SCDEs, chooses to focus on the qualitative issues of teacher education and exhorts us to reform. In this paper, I argue that the drift of public policy has seriously damaged the capacity of SCDEs to maintain their internal viability -- much less to concentrate on reform. Without a structural role in existing and new educational legislation with a professional development component, SCDEs will never be able to realize necessary reforms.

It has often been proposed that teaching suffers because it has not been declared a profession. Parallels to the medical profession are often invoked. The rationale for lengthy study and rigorous standards is based largely on the ameliorative effects of the Flexner report (1910) on medical education. Recently, however, more light has been shed which may be useful in looking to this model for reform. Four influences have been found to have an enormous impact: comprehensive program study, a particular program model, prestigious and generous patron assistance, and professional consensus

demanding generous Federal assistance, as exemplified by the Health Professions Act of 1963.

There are other variables which the education profession cannot hope to emulate. While the average annual cost of a student's medical education is $20,000, the average cost of teacher education is less than ten percent of that figure. The high quality of students self-selecting themselves into medicine is probably a function of the anticipated yield of the educational investment. Studies are beginning to show the influence of projected income as well as social status on students' career selection. This social phenomenon may come as a bit of a surprise to many who continue to see teaching as the vocational blessing of women "who love children."

As desirable as they may be, all the preconditions which made medical education enviable cannot be assured for teacher education. There is a fair amount of agreement within our profession that more resources need to be committed by the university to teacher preparation; that better students would be attracted if the status and pay of teaching were higher; and that patron support (particularly from a prestigious foundation) would have considerable benefits. There is, however, little agreement within the leadership of SCDEs as to the government's role in teacher education or how leaders in SCDEs should exert influence on that role.

Two former Federal officials, Wilbur Cohen and Francis Keppel, assert that major improvement in medical education was facilitated by the Health Professions Act (personal communication, 1979). Prior to its development, the profession opposed Federal assistance. After its passage, public policy regarding medical education was made explicit. Leaders in SCDEs need to understand that the funding of American education is unalterably linked to state and Federal budgets. The unit that controls the purse also controls policy.

Federal and state governments are relatively free to intercede in educational matters. Their actions can affect supply-demand (e.g., bilingual and special education); determine research and development priorities (NIE, Labs and Centers); establish dissemination programs (National Dissemination Network); build ancillary and competitive agencies for preservice and inservice training; authorize community colleges to train career ladder paraprofessionals; build intermediate units under ESEA III, IV and V; and establish technical assistance and resource centers for the handicapped, civil rights, and bilingual education. Moreover, state and Federal

governments can and have begun to require coordination of all educational personnel development.

Public policy concerning teacher education is chaotic. The uncertain fate of a Federal Department of Education should not defer a concerted effort to effect a policy. Such a policy will be the result of the political process, negotiated among the "demanders," the bureaucrats, the legislators, and the providers (including SCDEs). How influential SCDEs are in this process will depend on several factors: the extent of their knowledge of the problem, their identification of proposed solutions, their ability to develop coalitions with relevant groups, and their unified, consistent effort to exert influence.

Current Perspective on Teacher Education Policy

How much do we know about recent educational personnel development legislation? What is the size and scope of current Federal involvement in teacher education? Can legislative drift be identified? Given the elusive profile of public policy demonstrated by legislative acts, how can a relevant role for SCDEs be realized?

It is assumed that the Federal government's involvement in teacher education is extensive. Major activities authorized in educational personnel development legislation include training, instructional improvement, coordination, curricular and program development, dissemination, and evaluation. However, only about three percent of the Federal education budget is allocated for these activities (Feistritzer, 1979 and 1980). Figures for the past four years show this consistency:

FY 78 $282,000,000 of $10,000,000,000

FY 79 $356,312,000 of $12,398,420,000

FY 80 $340,475,000 of $11,783,930,000

FY 81 $500,000,000 of $14,168,000,000

Nineteen discretionary programs and parts of ESEA Title I and the Vocational Education Act make up the bulk of educational personnel development legislation. No report on the specific amount spent on preservice and inservice activities is available. However, the four major programs directed to these purposes -- Special Education, Part D, $55.375

million; Bilingual Education, $30.325 million; Teacher Corps, $30 million; Teacher Centers, $13 million -- add up to less than one percent of the FY 1981 Federal education budget. (Less than one percent is allocated to educational research and development.) There is no data on the numbers of persons trained through educational personnel development activities outside these four programs. Neither is the summative data available concerning the amount, type, duration, mode, or outcomes of these programs.

Policy makers continue to assume that institutions of higher education are heavily involved in the teacher education efforts sponsored by the Federal government. However, no analysis of numbers of institutions, types of involvement or impact of such involvement is available. Nor has the negative impact of Federal legislation on the maintenance or development of SCDEs as institutions been assessed.

Roy Edelfelt of the National Education Association (NEA) is quick to point out that less than one percent of classroom teachers benefit from Federal educational personnel development activities (Feistritzer, 1980, p. 10). Such disproportion may lead policy makers to conclude that if schooling is to be improved and budgets maintained, a redistribution within programs should be effected. The NEA proposed the dismantling of Teachers Corps in testimony concerning the Amendments to the Higher Education Act of 1980. Counter-arguments were proposed by the Heritage Foundation for the Reagan Administration to abolish the Teacher Centers program.

As program administrators admit, few who are vocal in influencing Federal teacher education programs propose greater involvement of SCDEs. One reason is the general lack of public confidence in teacher training institutions. Another is the failure of the profession to promote the inclusion of SCDEs as the primary agency responsible for educational personnel development in Federal legislation. Other actors, particularly the organized teachers and state bureaucrats, have effectively shaped educational personnel development legislation in their favor.

How Has Current Policy Been Developed?

Historical factors and the shifts of political ethos have contributed to the current situation. Several major education laws, judicial decisions of the sixties and seventies, and the vestiges of Presidential priorities have shaped policy development for teacher education. Some

presidents have seen education as a viable tool for social progress. In 1965, a series of initiatives aimed at increasing equity of educational opportunity resulted in landmark legislation, the Elementary and Secondary Education Act. Primarily concerned with financial assistance to meet the special educational needs of educationally deprived children, this law created historic shifts in Federal intra- and inter-branch relations as well as modifying Federal, state and local relations. This law has had a significant impact on the role of SCDEs and their functional relationships in teacher education. Considerable funds flow directly to the SEAs and LEAs. With these funds, state education departments have been strengthened; intermediate service units and dissemination systems created; coordinative functions specified; and considerable funds provided for program administration. Formula funding to SEAs now accompanies almost all discretionary and entitlement programs. The Civil Rights Act of 1964 authorized the establishment of technical assistance centers to overcome discrimination based on race, sex, and national origins. Between 1964 and 1976, a considerable bureaucracy developed in state education agencies; their total personnel doubled from 11,000 to 22,000. It is estimated that from thirty-three to forty percent of SEA budgets are funded from Federal sources. In 1978, amendments to ESEA gave legislative authority for coordination of teacher education to the states. Titles IV and V now require SEAs to provide the Federal government with information on the coordination of all state and Federal funds for preservice and inservice training of educational personnel. The implications of this mandate for SCDEs are enormous.

Other Federal legislation has provided impetus for an active state role in teacher education. In 1958, training and leadership programs for the mentally retarded were created. SCDEs were encouraged to train trainers, but SEAs were authorized to establish traineeships and institutes for teachers. By 1963, all teachers of the handicapped were made eligible for training, and provisions were made for SCDEs to train teachers directly. However, in 1966, a new Title VI of ESEA, the Education of the Handicapped Act (EHA), created a state-grants program closely resembling that in vocational education. The states were again strengthened. The Bureau of Education of the Handicapped (BEH) was created.

In 1970, EHA consolidated several separate provisions into one legislative authority, Part D, Training for Education of the Handicapped. Part C established regional resource centers and provided for research, innovation, training, and dissemination activities which would support the work of the centers and programs.

In 1975, the passage of the Education for All Handicapped Children Act (P.L. 94-142) created unprecedented demands for special education teachers, as well as for the retraining of existing teachers. The intent of the legislation had enormous implications for teacher education reform. Although almost $3 billion is distributed by formula funding to SEAs and LEAs, no additional funding was added to Part D.

Through the influence of Maynard Reynolds (Grosenick and Reynolds, 1978), Part D contained provisions for reform of preservice teacher education programs directed at educating children in the least restrictive environment. In FY 1980, a little more than $3 million in Part D monies were allocated to SCDEs under this Deans' Grants program.

Part B, which determines the extent of Federal funding to LEAs and SEAs, requires comprehensive personnel planning. The relationship of SCDEs to these plans is not well delineated.

The Higher Education Act (HEA) of 1965 has also played a significant role in the development of teacher education policy. Although the National Science Foundation (NSF) had continuously funded institutes for science and mathematics since 1954, the National Defense Education Act of 1958 (NDEA) first committed the Federal government to a range of education professional development activities in a wide participatory system: SCDEs, LEAs, SEAs, and libraries. Funds were used for a great variety of activities: programs, loans, equipment, research, dissemination, and remodeling. By 1968, more than 125,000 school personnel had participated in relevant activities, primarily through inservice institutes.

However, by 1968, the Federal government decided that short-term training had little impact on teacher education reform. Therefore, Title V of the HEA was created with fellowships for elementary and secondary teachers and those college graduates who wanted to enter teaching. In 1968, NDEA was budgeted for $43.25 million, HEA Title V for $35 million.

The Education Professions Development Act (EPDA) of 1967 was the first comprehensive legislation for teacher education. Created under Title V of HEA, it had several interesting dimensions: (a) created a National Advisory Council on Education to report annually on supply and demand; (b) provided grants and contracts to SCDEs, SEAs, and LEAs to attract qualified new people to education; (c) continued Teacher Corps (which had been established by HEA in 1965); (d) authorized formula grants to SEAs to attract

and qualify teachers to meet critical shortages; (e) authorized comprehensive training of trainers (TTT); (f) created the New Careers Program (COP); (g) funded Competency Based Teacher Education Programs (CBTE); and (h) funded Bilingual Education training programs. EPDA had a nine year life (1967 to 1976) and a budget that decreased from $182 to $53 million.

One program in EPDA, Educational Renewal, created a network of training complexes giving SCDEs and LEAs joint responsibility for the preservice and inservice training of teachers. This effort anticipated the future Teacher Centers program. Inservice education was to be provided by a collaborative effort of SCDEs and LEAs. The period of educational renewal and reform was not to last long.

By 1972, in a strategy attributed to Daniel Moynihan, the Nixon administration made clear its intention to placate education interest groups which demanded increased Federal funding. Initiatives were sought to create a distinctive education program -- without committing vast expenditures. Plans for education revenue sharing and a credible research effort to assess the effectiveness of federally sponsored programs emerged. The Federal concern was to improve educational outputs, not to provide more money. Arguments for more and better research justified the dam constructed to stem the deluge of "Great Society" demands. Such research was to be of high quality and site specific. Resources were to be concentrated at the local level and professional development was to be shifted from helping individuals to promoting institutional reform. As a fascinating book about the birth of the National Institute of Education, Organizing an Anarchy (Sproull, et al., 1978) suggests, the prevailing mood deemed "education too important to be left to educators." And a system of regional research labs and centers emerged, involved with the realities of schooling rather than the esoteric concerns of higher education faculties. The Office of Education was also instructed to improve its coordinative functions. Discretionary authorities were to be consolidated to attack problems that local districts defined for themselves.

The attempt at administrative consolidation without legislative authority proved a different form of "social dynamite." The Cranston Amendment to the Education Amendments of 1972 expressly forbade the consolidation of programs and the commingling of appropriations without express legislative authority. Movement was initiated to repeal EPDA. In the resulting conflict, with contradictory proposals set forth by competitive groups, the opportunity for comprehensive planning and teacher education reform

dissolved. The teacher shortage was officially declared over, and the substantial emphasis on teacher education reform was removed from the Higher Education Act.

What is left? Today three Federal laws define current educational personnel development activities: ESEA, EHA, and HEA. They are not aimed at teacher education reform. Their purposes overlap; their outcomes are unclear. The interrelations of agencies are indeterminate, and the number and effectiveness of training programs are obscure. These laws are looked to by leaders of SCDEs as having potential for teacher education reform. They are considered by legislators and bureaucrats as instruments of teacher education reform. However, their original purpose was to create new priorities for the schools, not to reform teacher education. The intentions of these programs are already complex enough. They cannot be used as a vehicle for national teacher education reform.

These laws have directed considerable funds away from SCDEs and have strengthened intergovernmental ties. SEAs and LEAs receive major funds for a host of educational personnel development activities. The states have authority for coordination of preservice and inservice programs, and only four programs have identifiable budgets directed to teacher education. The amount of Federal dollars and resources available to SCDEs for teacher education reform is infinitesimal.

How Can Policy Be Influenced?

The national demand for teacher education reform makes a formulation of public policy imperative. In 1975, Stephen Bailey wrote that education in the U.S. was suffering from "an ebb tide of public support, and its friends need to consider whatever instruments or agencies exist to help it escape a dangerous fiscal and programmatic undertow." This statement is as true now as it was then. Shifts in Federal intra- and interbranch relations as well as in Federal-state-local relations indicate that the future of American education will be shaped by political decision makers. Only those who understand political influence can be effective in furthering the goals of educational policy. Although political decisions can hardly be predicted, there are several useful factors: knowledge, affiliations, actions, and power.

How can SCDE members as a group become more knowledgeable about policy developments affecting teacher education? Until recently there has not been wide circulation of the bits and pieces of legislative actions or

descriptions of the current Washington ethos. C. Emily Feistritzer recently began to provide reports of national issues and activities affecting teacher education. Recently the AERA has also developed a rather comprehensive monthly "information memo" directed to the educational research and development community. Both of these publications provide timely and challenging information useful in assessing policy developments and anticipating implications for SCDEs.

The scope of legislation affecting teacher education has also recently been published. The identification of directionary programs and participant eligibility is as useful to grant developers as it is in assessing the priorities of Federal education programs.

What do policy makers want to know and to whom do they turn for answers? Although much public policy is purely intuitive and subject to the values of the chief policy maker, Congressional staff members have reported that much consideration is given to the effects and outcomes of policies on individuals, institutions, and agencies -- particularly in a constituent area. Rated as highly influential were local education agencies, professional associations, unions, and other Congressional staff members. Personal contact and pragmatic solutions to legislative problems were also considered useful.

In order to expand SCDEs' scope of influence on teacher education policy at the Federal level, the AACTE Board of Directors created the Governmental Relations Commission (GRC) in 1975. The Commission is strengthened by formal affiliation with the Educational Policy Committee (EPC) of the Association of Colleges and Schools of Education in State Universities and Land Grant Colleges and Affiliated Private Universities (ACSESULGC/APU); the Teacher Education Council of State Colleges and Universities (TECSCU); the Deans' Network; the American Vocational Association (AVA); the American Educational Research Association (AERA); and the Higher Education Consortium on Special Education (HECSE). Other coalitions have been built: the Associated Organization for Professional Education (AOPE) and the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). AACTE participates in the coalition at the National Center for Higher Education and is developing a common agenda with the National Education Association (NEA) and the American Federation of Teachers (AFT).

The accomplishments of this combined Governmental Relations Commission are impressive. During a five-year period, the combined efforts of Commission members and other SCDE leaders have:

- increased AACTE's recognition among Washington's policy and decision makers
- helped to introduce legislation to create a Department of Education
- strengthened the Deans' Grant program in special education
- developed a Deans' Grant program in the new Bilingual Education regulations
- secured a ten percent "set aside" for SCDEs in the Teacher Centers program
- secured a five-year funding cycle for the Teacher Corps program
- secured training for additional teachers of the handicapped
- secured higher appropriation levels for teacher education programs
- tracked and monitored state legislation and the activities of state agencies
- secured passage of the Schools of Education Assistance Act, the first piece of legislation directed to SCDEs for program reform, diversification, and redirection since 1967 (see Appendix).

In 1979, Senator Harrison Williams (D-NJ), Chairman of the U.S. Senate Labor and Human Resources Committee, responded to the information provided by the Governmental Relations Commission about the negative impact of much Federal legislation on teacher education. National challenges for education were enormous, yet few resources were available to SCDEs to modify missions and programs consistent with developing national expectations. Advocates within the higher education community testified before several important committees as to the importance of corrective legislation: the Senate Committee on Labor and Human Resources in their oversight hearings on Education and Work; the Senate Subcommittee on Education in hearings reauthorizing HEA; and the Senate Subcommittee on the Handicapped oversight hearings regarding P.L. 94-142. Each of these presentations focused on the need to strengthen SCDEs as they respond to the configuration of education which has substantially changed in complexity and character in less than two decades.

On February 6, Sen. Williams introduced S. 360, the Schools of Education Assistance Act. This bill authorized grants to SCDEs for the purposes of program development, mission redirection, and diversification to meet needs in education and a host of human services areas. For a two-year period, the Governmental Relations Commission worked very closely with Franklin Zweig, counsel to the U.S. Senate Labor and Human Resources Committee. Through his intervention, Congressional staff working on the reauthorization of the Higher Education Act became aware of needs particular to SCDEs. Rep. Ted Weiss (D-NY) introduced identical language, with the addition of a modification proposed by Congressman William D. Ford's (D-MI) staff members. They urged that purposes of the bill be modified to include a revitalization of preservice and inservice teacher training programs. Provisions for state and local coordination were also added.

Differences in emphasis emerged in these two bills. Williams' version was broader and focused on mission expansion and revitalization. Weiss's bill was more concerned with teacher education reform and the need to train teachers in particular categorical areas. The final bill, which was ultimately accepted by the House-Senate conference committee as Section 504 of Title V, is an interesting merger of both purposes. Under this Act, SCDEs can develop model projects, achieve diversification and redirection, retrain faculty members to work in areas of need and with CETA, and train personnel who will specialize in the implementation of urban and environmental policies. The bill provides authority to the state education agencies for review and approval consistent with their coordinative responsibilities assigned under ESEA. Delicate negotiations in the final conference committee resulted in the exclusion of provisions for inservice education, but provided that funding would be contingent upon Teacher Centers appropriations.

One additional major activity in teacher education was an amendment to Section 505 of Title V in 1980, which authorized grants to state education agencies to support fellowship programs in IHEs for teachers to be trained in special education.

In the summer of 1980, the Federal government modified the path of the public policy in teacher education which prevailed for the last decade. Although SEAs, LEAs, and other agencies retained legislative authority to exercise considerable control in the development of teacher education, this new piece of legislation gave schools of education a specific opportunity for reform. The Schools of Education Assistance Act anticipates the crisis in teacher education, identifies needed reforms and redirections, and gives SCDEs the opportunity for resources to aid their efforts.

What More Needs to Be Done?

In an informal moment, Congressman Ted Weiss commented that S. 360 was very controversial, adding, "I sure hope it's worth it!" Considerable efforts will need to be undertaken to assure appropriations and to gain the commitment of the new Administration. Strategies must be developed which support Teacher Centers and work out mutual agreements. Strategies must also be developed which support collaborative systems among SCDEs and between SCDEs and SEAs.

Clearly, leaders in SCDEs must continue to promote structural roles for SCDEs in all educational personnel development activities. This condition should be directed to state and Federal policy makers. AACTE must continue its actions in Washington and increase its scope of influence through the state units. A broad based, well informed, influential subsystem should be developed at the local level.

Congress is becoming increasingly more accountable to constituent and local needs. Members of Congress and their staffs need data, information, and alternative, constructive proposals as they develop and implement policy decisions. These proposals become more persuasive when presented by constituents rather than professional organizations. The need to orchestrate a decentralized system into a unified voice for teacher education at the national level will be a complex task. It will require planning, training, and the development of mutual supports.

The membership of AACTE represents diversity of organizational configurations and heterogeneity of roles. Different interests, priorities, and judgments concerning teacher education are appropriate for internal debates. However, if we are to be successful in a major legislative initiative, we will be required to set aside individual differences and unify around essential programmatic and funding issues. In addition, the profession must acknowledge and develop important alliances among those agencies in educational policy making which have already demonstrated their ability to influence legislation. These agencies should become allies, not competitors.

The energy of those few leaders highly active in legislative work should be multiplied by the efforts of many active in their home states. The evidence presented above clearly demonstrates the need for policy development in teacher education. Such policy will facilitate reform, strengthen the professional status of education, realize the socially constructive benefits of inter-governmental and inter-agency relations, and improve the preparation of teachers. The process undertaken in shaping the future of teacher education is the responsibility of the leaders in the teacher education community. For many, this will mean developing new skills, attitudes, and activities at a

time when the preoccupation with extraordinary internal organizational concerns appears overwhelming. The time is ripe for action. As a valuable resource to our nation's future, the role of schools, colleges, and departments of education will be preserved and strengthened.

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APPENDIX

Public Law 96-374 - October 3, 1980
Title V, Higher Education Act of 1965

TEACHER TRAINING

Sec. 504. Section 533 of the Act is amended to read as follows:

"TRAINING FOR HIGHER EDUCATION PERSONNEL

"Sec. 533.(a) The Secretary is authorized to make grants to schools of education for the purposes of --

"(1) developing model projects within schools of education to carry out improved preservice or support activities for preparing elementary or secondary school teachers;

"(2) achieving diversification and redirection of education programs for elementary and secondary school teachers in order to make maximum use of human resources in the fields of education and public service;

"(3) retraining faculty members of such schools of education to provide courses of study for training elementary and secondary school teachers to teach in programs of career education, education of the gifted and talented children, education of handicapped individuals, community education, adult education programs, earth sciences, and other related programs;

"(4) training and orientation projects for faculty members of schools of education designed to prepare the faculty to teach and train personnel to work in conjunction with personnel who carry out projects under the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act and under title VIII of this Act, relating to cooperative education and training of individuals to prepare for the workplace; and

"(5) training educational personnel who will specialize in the implementation of the urban and environmental policies

of the United States, and for other areas of critical need within education which are developing or are likely to develop as provided in section 406(b)(5) of the General Education Provisions Act.

"(b) The Secretary is authorized to make grants to schools of education for the fiscal year 1981 and for each of the four succeeding years to carry out model projects for the purposes set forth in subsection (a). No grant may be under this subsection unless an application is made to the Secretary, at such time, in such manner, and containing or accompanied by such information as the Secretary may reasonably require.

"(c)(1) The Secretary is authorized to enter into agreements with consortia of schools of education planning programs designed to help member schools of the consortium to diversify and redirect programs and curricula of the member schools of education.

"(2)(A) The Secretary shall develop criteria for determining the regions of the country in which consortia of schools of education are to be established.

"(B) No consortium may receive a grant in excess of $200,000 in any fiscal year under this section.

"(C) No cooperative agreement may be entered into under this section unless an application is submitted through the State education agency of the State in which the applicant is located. Each such State agency will review and approve the application to assure its consistency with the comprehensive plan mandated by sections 404(a)(12) and 522(2) of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965. Such application shall be submitted at such time, in such manner, and containing or accompanied by such other information as the Secretary may reasonably require.

"(d) For purposes of this section, the term 'schools of education' means institutions of higher education, and administrative units of institutions of higher education, specializing in the training of individuals to serve as teachers, guidance and counseling personnel, administrative personnel, or other education specialists.".